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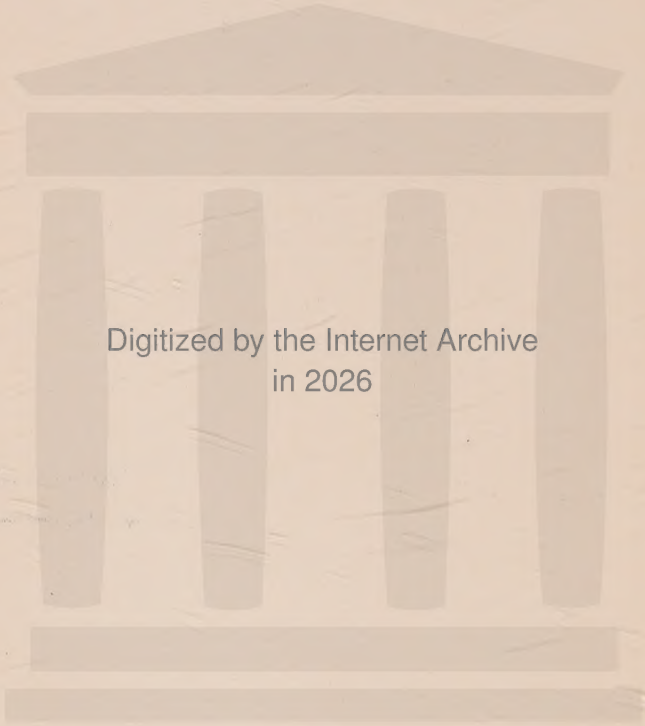
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MODERN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

BY CHARLES H. HANDSCHIN, PH.D.

AUTHOR OF

The Teaching of Modern Languages
in the United States

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The Facilities for Graduate Instruction
on Modern Language
in the United States

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Methods of Teaching
Modern Languages

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Preface

THIS book purposes to furnish the modern-language teacher with a survey of his field; the latest professional thought on its objectives, methods, and materials; and, as far as they concern him, the thought of the psychologist and the educationist concerning the method and the place of modern-language teaching in our schools.

There is a voluminous amount of writing on modern-language teaching, for the subject has a history, a philosophy, and a carefully worked-out technique of its own. To acquaint himself with all this is, for the busy teacher, quite impossible. Besides, not all the writings in this field are of equal value. There are here, as in other educational domains, endless reiteration, lip service to the ruling movements of the hour, and other time-consuming developments that have little to contribute to the teacher's growth. To summarize for the teacher the most significant of this professional discussion and to report results of tests and experiments in the modern-language field and the most important findings of the Modern Foreign Language Study are the first purposes of this book.

As to methods, the author advocates no particular one, well knowing that the method must vary with the aims of teaching and with school conditions — the combination of which factors will be unique for each situation. He feels certain only that evidence carefully gathered in the past few years through studies of reading in the vernacular and of modern-language teaching indicates with a reasonable degree of certainty that greater amounts of reading should be done in the modern-language course than were done formerly. The suggestions given have been planned on the basis of this conviction.

If setting up proper and possible aims is the first step in language teaching, the second is selecting the proper methods by which

these aims may be achieved. The third step is to select materials that will serve in achieving them. It is hoped this book will provide help in all three of these phases of the teacher's work.

There is also discussion of professional training and plans for the teacher's continuous professional improvement. Problems of special interest to administrators are also discussed.

In helping to found, and in serving for twenty years as an officer of, the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, and in his work as a member of the Committee of Direction and Control of the Modern Foreign Language Study, the author hopes he may have contributed in some degree to developing the appreciation of the American student for other cultures and his facility in other languages. The object of this volume, as of his earlier books, is the same cause. For the author believes it can best be served by the improvement of modern-language teaching. He sincerely hopes he has succeeded in getting into this volume suggestions that will stimulate and give practical help in attaining such improvement of the instruction in many classrooms.

The author takes pleasure in thanking his colleague, Professor Marion Miller, for painstaking reading of several chapters of the manuscript and of the first proof of the book.

C. H. H.

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Chapter One

History and Survey of Present Status of Modern-Language Courses in the United States

A BRIEF summary of the development of linguistic tradition in this country and of the history of modern-language instruction in the United States, its beginnings and the chief changes it has undergone,[1] should contribute considerably to an intelligent appraisal of the situation that exists today in the field of language teaching.

NON-ENGLISH LANGUAGE ELEMENTS IN EARLY AMERICA

The French language was for a time a strong competitor with English for the position of dominance in North America. Exiled French Huguenots settled in Florida as early as 1564. A year later the French settled Charleston, South Carolina. French traders and missionaries came to Maine and Louisiana in the early decades of the seventeenth century. The French and Indian Wars, which ended in 1763, destroyed the hold of the French on the Mississippi Valley. But so late as 1825, long after English had triumphed as the medium of communication in the new country, French culture was noticeable in Michigan and more especially in Illinois. It is still significant in Louisiana. In the Carolinas and Virginia, French cultural influence was also great throughout the entire colonial period and later, and is still perceptible.

The first formal teaching of the French language in this country was that given Indians by Catholic missionaries in their mission

[1] For a more detailed history of modern-language teaching to 1913, see C. H. Handschin, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States* (United States Bureau of Education, 1913, Bulletin No. 3).

schools in Maine and elsewhere. The missionaries followed, or accompanied, the fur traders, and by teaching their language to the Indians, provided a common language between French and Indians for trading purposes, social intercourse, and conversion of Indians to the Christian religion.

Among the more prosperous of the English-speaking colonists French became a polite accomplishment for the young and was taught by private French tutors and governesses.

Various other non-English linguistic influences were strong in early colonial times. The Spanish came to Florida in considerable numbers in 1565, and later to Louisiana; the Dutch came to Manhattan Island in the first quarter of the seventeenth century; German dissenters came to Pennsylvania in 1683 and soon spread to the Carolinas, to Georgia, to the North, and later to the West. Dutch never achieved any great importance as a medium of communication in this country, but both Spanish and German did.

Many Spanish-speaking people came under our flag when Florida was ceded to the United States in 1819, when the Louisiana Purchase was consummated in 1803, and again in 1847, when, as a result of the Mexican War, California, New Mexico, and Texas became part of the Union. Traces of Spanish influence lingered especially long in Louisiana, which was under the Spanish flag for a quarter century after American independence had been declared. Spanish linguistic influence in the country as a whole waned after the close of the seventeenth century, and Spanish was not taught in our schools to any considerable extent before the Spanish-American War of 1898.

German dissenters from the Rhine country and Bavaria — Moravians, Mennonites, Dunkers, Lutherans, and others — came to Pennsylvania upon an invitation of William Penn in 1683. Their migration to America became almost a mass movement in the early years of the eighteenth century. In the course of a few years they founded Germantown and spread to all parts of Penn-

sylvania and finally to Georgia, the Carolinas, New York, and later to the West. After the middle of the eighteenth century German immigration lagged until 1830 and 1848, when revolutions in the homeland started two new waves of emigration. These later exiles came, not for religious reasons, as had the earlier German immigrants, but for economic and political reasons. They were largely farmers and laborers, although some were highly educated persons of a more aristocratic stamp. These peoples settled chiefly in seaboard cities or migrated westward to the Ohio and Mississippi valleys and even farther west.

These Germans in general proved readily assimilable and merged with the mass, but where they lived in compact settlements of their own, as they frequently did, they kept up the use of their native language, employing it exclusively as a medium of instruction in their very fine parochial and private schools. The German settlers had behind them a tradition of conspicuously good elementary and higher schools, and finding school facilities often lamentably meager in the regions they settled, particularly west of the Alleghenies, they built large numbers of private secular schools which often achieved considerable reputation for their excellence. Both Protestant and Catholic German churches also established parochial schools. And in all these German-established schools German was the medium of introduction, thus giving great vitality and endurance to the language in the German communities.

EARLY SCHOOL INSTRUCTION IN LANGUAGES

In order to win children away from the German schools and into the public schools, courses in German were introduced in the eighteen-forties into the public elementary schools in a number of important centers, East and West. This plan was successful within a short time as the public elementary schools became better and better and as it became increasingly burdensome on German communities to keep up their German private schools, particularly

when the second and following generations of Germans had no longer a compelling interest in their German tradition. Courses in German were accordingly introduced into the public elementary schools in numerous cities and towns, and grew fast in the last two thirds of the century, after the immigrations of 1830 and 1848. By 1870 German was so thoroughly incorporated into the educational scheme that the United States Commissioner of Education could say, "The German language has actually become the second language of our Republic, and a knowledge of it has become essential to a finished education." [1] By 1880 German had outstripped French as a school subject in the areas densely settled by Germans, while it even displaced French and Spanish entirely in some of the largest cities. In the Central West, the "German Belt," it soon outnumbered French twice over. The outbreak of the World War, however, put an end to this growing popularity of German study.

The courses offered in German were optional for all but were for the greatest part taken by children of German-American families, although other children were frequently found in them. The cities in which the greatest numbers were enrolled in the German classes were New York, Baltimore, Buffalo, Cleveland, Chicago, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, St. Louis, Denver, and San Francisco.

Although German was the first modern language to become important in the public school curriculum, French had earlier had considerable attention in the academies. In colonial days French had been the only language taught to any considerable extent in the private schools, this instruction antedating that in German by half a century. But French as a course of study had little respect from the public. It was thought of as an elegant accomplishment rather than an educational necessity and was taught by foreigners who were generally poor pedagogues, often

[1] United States Bureau of Education, Report of the Commissioner (1903), p. 55.

incapable even of maintaining proper discipline in their classes. This situation contributed to the general lack of respect with which French courses were regarded by the general public.

French as a serious part of the educational program received its first great impetus with the solid French friendship that evolved from French aid in the Revolution. In 1832 it was introduced as an elective in the oldest high school in the country, the Boston Latin School, and spread slowly with the high-school movement from there along the Atlantic seaboard southward and to the Central West. French was especially favored in the academies of Kentucky. Up to the outbreak of the Civil War it was taught generally in the public schools of Louisiana, sporadically in New England, from the mid-century on in New York City, for a decade and more in San Francisco, and later in Boston, and in private schools rather generally. It never achieved the importance of German except in the North and South Atlantic States and the South Central States, where it consistently had larger enrollments than German. By 1896, 9 per cent of all students in secondary schools studied French; by 1905, 11.4 per cent; while for German the percentages were in 1896, 11 per cent; in 1905, 20.34 per cent.

Spanish in elementary schools was limited to the sections with considerable Spanish population: Florida, Texas, and California. As a branch of study in the elementary-school curriculum it has little history except in New Mexico.

Other modern languages — Scandinavian, Polish, Bohemian, Hebrew, and others — have been taught sporadically in schools. Scandinavian has for many years been of considerable importance in the schools of certain states, especially in the Northwest and West.

Certain states in the Northwest were largely populated by Scandinavians. Those who belonged to the Lutheran Church generally propagated their native tongue through their pastors and parochial schools. As the original immigrants passed away,

preaching and teaching in Scandinavian grew less prevalent. It was natural then for the Scandinavian elements in the population to ask that Scandinavian, Dano-Norwegian — called Norse — and Swedish be taught in the public elementary schools and later in high schools. This was done. Enrollments in these courses were considerable until two decades ago, not only in elementary but in high schools. Four out of five high schools in Minneapolis taught Scandinavian in 1916–1917. Forty-nine towns and cities in Minnesota, thirty-five in North Dakota, seven in Iowa, five in Illinois, four in Wisconsin, and two in Nebraska reported enrollments in it for that year.[1] It was taught also in numerous other states, notably South Dakota, Idaho, Washington, and even New York. The teachers were mostly of Scandinavian descent; the textbooks were supplied by publishing houses of the Lutheran Church or by Scandinavian-American publishers in the Northwest. Even today Scandinavian is taught widely in states in the Northwest.

EUROPEAN PRECEDENTS FOR FOREIGN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

In education, as in most other matters, the United States continued a province of Europe long after political independence was declared. American practices were for long only an application of European habits and institutions to a different locale. Until comparatively late in the nineteenth century the great majority of books and other expressions of art were imported from Europe, bringing along with them the traditions and beliefs they represented. Foreign-language teaching was influenced in this way no less than other fields of activity. It may accordingly be worth while to consider very briefly the development of this branch of education in the continental countries that led in it.

Modern foreign languages were not much taught in European schools before the nineteenth century was well on its way. The

[1] *Northern Review*, Vol. 3 (Dec., 1917), pp. 13 ff.

great stimulus to their increased study then was the Industrial Revolution and the consequent growth of commerce and travel among peoples of different languages. England, however, although the first country to revolutionize its industry through the use of modern inventions and power machinery and also the first nation to trade extensively in the markets of the world, was very backward about learning the languages of its customers. The fact was that England's prestige in the colonial world was so great that she deemed it unnecessary to make concessions to any other linguistic tradition; so the system of teaching modern foreign languages in England remained backward until near the end of the century.

France and Germany were the first countries to sense the need of developing methods for teaching contemporary foreign languages. It was natural for France as an urbane nation with extensive colonies, and for a time as the center of European culture, to put emphasis on means of communication with foreign peoples. She accordingly instituted in the eighteen-eighties a reform of methods of teaching languages. Germany, which had entered the ranks of the trading nations last and was thereby handicapped in her commercial development, was paradoxically the first to take up the problem of teaching languages for cultural and trading purposes. When Germany finally entered the markets of the world as a trading nation, late in the nineteenth century, she quickly improved her methods of teaching foreign languages. Before the end of the century her citizens were selling goods in many countries, using always the language of the country itself as the means of communication. This fact was an important factor in her phenomenal commercial progress before 1914. Surrounded as Germany is by more different nations than any other country in Europe, she has a particular need for foreign languages as a medium of intellectual as well as commercial exchange. Foreign languages have consequently long been widely included in the curriculum of German schools and universities.

MODERN LANGUAGES IN AMERICAN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The growth of foreign-language courses in colleges and universities naturally paralleled that in the lower schools, but it had a particular significance in that it directly inspired the spread of these courses in the public and private high schools and academies by giving them prestige, by preparing teachers for them, and finally, in 1884, by leading to a modern-language requirement for admission to college.

Thomas Jefferson, who had a rather considerable knowledge of modern languages, furthered their introduction into American colleges, notably by helping to establish the first professorship of modern language in this country in 1779 at the College of William and Mary. French, German, Spanish, and Italian were offered by this department. After these beginnings the teaching of German and French in higher institutions made generally steady progress. Franklin aided in introducing French as well as German into the school that later became the University of Pennsylvania.

French was introduced into the older colleges as follows: Harvard, 1735; University of Pennsylvania, 1754; Princeton, then the College of New Jersey, 1772; William and Mary, 1779; Columbia, 1784; Williams, 1792; University of North Carolina, 1795; Bowdoin, 1820. The new branch of learning was, naturally enough, not immediately recognized as a regular college subject and work in it was not at first credited toward academic advancement. Instruction in it was mostly given by transient instructors who were not recognized as regular members of the college faculties. But the situation steadily improved. A professorship in German had been established in the University of Pennsylvania in 1754. In 1817 Harvard appointed George Ticknor professor of French and Spanish and in 1825 appointed Carl Follen, a professor of church history and ethics, to teach German along with his other subjects. Longfellow was made a

professor of modern languages — German, French, Spanish, and Italian — at Bowdoin in 1825. By 1884 the majority of the sixty leading colleges and universities required knowledge of a foreign language for entrance.[1] By 1910, 210 of 340 colleges required modern language for graduation in most of their courses.[2]

All the evidences of an improved sentiment toward modern-language instruction were, of course, also stimuli to the further spread of the movement. Ticknor and Follen did much to give publicity to the teaching of modern languages and contributed considerably to the improvement of their standing among scholars and the general public. Longfellow by his lectures and literary works — particularly his poems on German themes and his translations from the German — fired the imagination of the public to an appreciation of the importance of a knowledge of German. Among the early professors of modern language were many other men of scholarship who did much to establish the reputation of language teaching as a respected part of the college curriculum. Outstanding among these were George Blaetterman of the University of Virginia, William Creamer of the University of Pennsylvania, John Petard of Columbia, and Charles Bellini of William and Mary.

The movement to establish modern languages in the college curriculum was also furthered by various political and social tendencies of the day, some of which have already been discussed as factors in the development of modern-language courses on the lower academic levels.

The strong sympathy with the French point of view that was fostered by French support of the American Revolution led to a widespread popularity of French philosophy and the general acceptance of French as the language of polite cosmopolitan

[1] E. W. Bagster-Collins, *Studies in Modern-Language Teaching*, p. 3 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

[2] C. H. Handschin, *Modern Language Teaching in the United States*, p. 50 (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson; 1923).

society. These factors were largely responsible for the introduction of French courses in many colleges, a tendency that was actively supported, particularly in Virginia and the Carolinas, by large numbers of wealthy Americans of French ancestry who contributed significantly to the support of the leading Eastern colleges.

German was not first introduced into the college curriculum as a means to studying a culture in which there existed a strong public interest, as was often the case with French. The subject had long only the practical value of developing skill in a medium of communication essential for intercourse with considerable groups of people in the country. Only after the beginning of the nineteenth century did German literature and politics hold any interest for Americans. The prejudice aroused against Germany by the employment of Hessian soldiers to aid Great Britain in fighting the American revolutionaries was deepened by the lapse of Frederick the Great's German state into disjointed autocracy after the founder's passing. Only when von Stein and others of his kind ushered in a new day after the turn of the century was there anything politically attractive in Germany for Americans. The widespread sympathy of Americans for the German cause in the Napoleonic wars further deepened the interest in things German and lent momentum to the movement to teach the language in American institutions of learning.

But most important of all the influences encouraging the spread of German courses was the tremendous growth of American interest in German educational and philosophical thought in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The discovery of the idealistic philosophy of Kant, Schelling, and their followers, by the Transcendentalists — Theodore Parker, Margaret Fuller, and Ralph Waldo Emerson, outstandingly — and of the great German classical literature, especially that of Goethe and Schiller, by Carlyle and Emerson found an enthusiastic public response in the United States. A tremendous enthusiasm for German ways and German

thought resulted, which led naturally to study of the German language. The growth of this sentiment was marked by such conspicuous incidents as the establishment in 1823 of the Round Hill School at Northampton, Massachusetts, by the historian Bancroft on German models and ideals; the appearance in 1834 of Victor Cousin's book on the public schools of Prussia; the maintenance of a school at New Haven from 1828 to 1831 on the German system by Edward Everett, George Ticknor, the brothers Dwight, and others. American students were also going in considerable numbers to the German universities, particularly to the University of Göttingen, and returning with a real zeal for German thought and practices which soon spread in the country generally. Cotton Mather's correspondence with Herman Francke, the head of the great educational foundations in Halle, Germany, was widely read and aroused much interest in German educational ideals and methods.

The establishment of modern-language departments in colleges was further encouraged by the development of the elective system of studies, which was first established at Harvard in 1875 and from there quickly spread to other universities and colleges until by 1885 nearly one third of American colleges were operating under it. This breaking down of rigid academic requirements freed considerable student time for the study of subjects outside the conventional curriculum and gave impetus to the development of courses in modern languages.

Although an awakened scholarly and public sentiment was ready for the development of an extensive modern-language curriculum by the last quarter of the century and the movement had gained considerable headway, funds to establish professorships were sparse, and by 1885 there were in twenty of the largest universities and colleges only twenty-two professorships of French, thirty-one of German, and ten all told in Spanish and Italian.

Scandinavian has been a university study in the United States

since New York University established a chair for it in 1858.[1] In 1914 it was taught in twenty-two of our largest universities.[2] Scandinavian culture has had, and still has, considerable attraction for Americans, judging by the scope of Scandinavian studies, including Icelandic, in our universities. This fact is shown also by the popularity of fiction depicting Scandinavian-American characters[3] and the great vogue among us of Björnson, Ibsen, Strindberg, Lagerlöf, Hamsun, Undset, and others. The Scandinavian-American Foundation[4] with its notable publications serves as an agency of cultural exchange.

WORLD-WAR INFLUENCE ON LANGUAGE TEACHING

After the collapse of German as a subject of instruction in 1917 and the following years, the belief became widespread that since we could do without German with no serious inconvenience — as had been demonstrated — we could do without the other modern foreign languages. Although the fact of French alliance in the war at first stimulated an era of great expansion of French courses along with Spanish, in higher education as well as in secondary, there soon ensued a rapid falling off in enrollments in all modern-language courses.

The relative importance of the various languages also changed radically. The relative strength of Spanish in the modern-language curriculum grew by leaps in secondary and higher institutions, a movement that the Spanish-American War and our acquisition of Spanish territory had caused some years earlier. Now when European trade was terribly dislocated by the War,

[1] George T. Flom, *A History of Scandinavian Studies in American Universities* (University of Iowa, Iowa City; 1903).

[2] C. H. Handschin, *The Facilities for Graduate Instruction in Modern Languages in the United States* (Miami University Publications, Oxford, Ohio; 1914).

[3] Outstanding in this field has been O. E. Rölvaag's *Giants in the Earth* (Harper & Brothers, New York; 1927).

[4] 116 East Sixty-fourth Street, New York.

Spanish South America loomed larger on our commercial horizon than it ever had before and created a new demand for Spanish teaching in our schools. There was, however, a dearth of Spanish teachers. Great numbers of the teachers of German in secondary schools switched to Spanish, and still departments in colleges and other training schools were overtaxed to supply the demand for teachers. Because of this stress many teachers were not, for some years, fully trained. Also certain leaders laid too much stress upon the utilitarian value of Spanish as opening commercial opportunities for students in Spanish America and other Spanish-speaking regions. The upshot of all these circumstances was inevitably that Spanish, after its initial popularity, began to wane except in the Southwest where life retained a distinct Spanish flavor and interest in Spanish institutions flourished.

The growth of interest in Romance languages and the shift in the relative importance of Romance languages and German may be seen by comparison of the numbers of doctorates taken in German and in the Romance languages during the two periods 1908–1909 to 1912–1913[1] and 1925–1926 to 1928–1929.[2] It was useless in making these studies to segregate the degrees taken in the various Romance languages, since there were so many combinations of Spanish, French, and Italian. They were therefore summed up under the heading of Romance languages.

In the first of the two periods studied there were 86 degrees taken in German and only 56 in Romance languages; in the second period the relative positions of these language groups were reversed. There were in the second period 196 doctorates taken in the Romance languages and only 66 in German, not counting 4 degrees taken in French and German jointly.

[1] C. H. Handschin, *op. cit.*, pp. 96–97.

[2] H. G. Doyle, "Doctors' Degrees in Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Oct., 1926), pp. 38–41; Vol. 13 (Oct., 1928), pp. 28–30; Vol. 14 (Oct., 1929), pp. 37–39; Vol. 21 (Oct., 1936), pp. 55–60. While Doyle's lists are not absolutely inclusive, they give the true picture essentially.

By 1935–1936 German had somewhat recovered its earlier position, 33 doctorates being taken in it, a number much larger than the average for a single year in the second five-year period studied.

The growth of Italian courses in higher education since the war has been considerable, but the greatest development in this department has taken place in very recent years. The doctors' degrees in Italian, if any, were not segregated for the first five-year period mentioned above. In the second five-year period there were two degrees in Italian, one in Italian with French jointly, and a number in Italian in combination with other Romance languages. While the total enrollment in Italian in secondary schools is still comparatively small and mostly confined to a few large cities, we must note that there is a strong Italian element in the United States that has only lately become vocal. Italian enrollments in New York City public schools have increased fivefold since 1917.[1]

After war sentiment had moderated and commercial, social, and intellectual relations between the United States and German-speaking countries were resumed, it became evident that German was needed as a tool by great numbers of college students, and since it was taught but little in high schools there ensued a steady growth of German in colleges and universities. In the junior colleges German was faring somewhat better by 1932–1933,[2] and in graduate departments of the universities it is continuing to grow in popularity.

[1] Bruno Roselli has given us a valuable history of Italian instruction, in *Italian Yesterday and Today*, published in 1935 by the Stratford Company, Boston.

[2] "German Enrollment in American Institutions of Higher Learning," *G.Q.*, Vol. 7 (Nov., 1934), pp. 129–144.

THE PRESENT CONDITION OF FOREIGN-LANGUAGE INSTRUCTION

The data collected by the Modern Foreign Language Study in 1925 [1] furnish us with the most comprehensive statistics of foreign-language enrollment and its distribution ever collected. These figures cover 19,344, or 93 per cent, of all public secondary schools and a total pupil enrollment of 3,860,760. Of this total, 20.6 per cent were found enrolled in modern languages and 20.3 per cent in Latin. In the 1155 private schools for which statistics were collected, the modern foreign languages present a fairer picture. Fifty per cent of the total school population is enrolled in them. This larger proportion is due to the large enrollment in French and German in the private schools; although Spanish enrolls fewer here than it does in the public schools.

Of the total enrollment in both public and private secondary schools, 25 per cent studied modern foreign languages, distributed as follows: French 13.6 per cent, Spanish 9.6 per cent, German 1.7 per cent, with the other modern foreign languages making up the remainder. The following aspects of these enrollments are quoted from this source.

The country over, and in all classes of schools, the heaviest enrollments in modern foreign languages are found in the largest cities and so on down to the lightest enrollment in the smallest centers. In the case of Latin the opposite is true.

Of the total foreign-language enrollment in public secondary schools 1,263,046, which with the enrollment in private secondary schools approximates 2,000,000 pupils, slightly over 50 per cent are in modern foreign languages and slightly under 50 per cent are in Latin.

Modern-foreign-language enrollment is heaviest in the four-

[1] Carleton A. Wheeler, *Enrollment in Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1928).

year high schools, there being 28 per cent; in junior high schools it is only 10 per cent of the total enrollment. The larger the school the larger the proportion of students taking modern-foreign-language courses.

French is shown to be still the favored modern foreign language in New England, with Spanish and German far in the rear. Latin is ahead of the modern foreign languages in the Middle Atlantic states, in the North Central states, and in the Southern states excepting Florida, where Spanish leads over all. French stands first among the modern foreign languages in the North Central states, with Spanish a fair second; German here is almost out of the race. In the Central Western states, with their prevalently small cities, Latin leads, while French is next in some states and Spanish in others. The stronghold of Spanish is, besides Florida, still the Southwest, where it is found on the program of 80 per cent of the high schools, with enrollment in other languages almost negligible except for French. In California, Spanish is in 95 per cent, French in 47 per cent, of the schools. In the Northwestern states with their small communities, Latin is found in 81 per cent of the schools, with French and Spanish trailing it. In countrywide enrollments the foreign languages rank as follows: Latin, French, Spanish, German, Italian.

The one-year course in French and Spanish is found frequently in the Central West and California. In the East the two-year course is the rule for French, German, and Spanish, with three-year courses in French enjoying popularity in Texas, Massachusetts, and New York, and in Spanish in California and New York. About 80 per cent of all the registrants in French drop out by or before the end of two years of study; 43 per cent drop out the first year; and only 3 per cent continue a fourth year. In German 60 per cent drop out the first year and 31 per cent the second year; in Spanish 60 per cent drop out the first year and 32 per cent the second. It is plain therefore that aims for these courses must be generally realizable in the first two years.

French is begun prevalently in the seventh or eighth grade, while German and Spanish are commonly begun in the first year of the four-year high school except in the Southwest, where Spanish enrolls many in the junior high schools. Foreign-language study is, however, in the majority of cases not undertaken before the senior-high-school grades.

H. C. Marshall [1] found the practice of starting foreign languages in grades seven and eight the prevalent one in 1925, in a study covering thirty-three cities of 100,000 or more population each.

Today there is an evident tendency to begin foreign-language study later. For the nation as a whole the ninth and tenth grades at the present time get over twice as many language enrollments as do the other four grades put together.

T. W. Gosling's report on language teaching in the territory of the North Central Association,[2] the most detailed report yet made on this question and the one covering the largest number of schools — 337, of which 280 reported on foreign language — reveals interesting facts. It is shown here that Latin was offered in 89.1 per cent of the schools reporting; French in 32.7 per cent, Spanish in 22.7, German in 3.1 per cent, and Italian in .6 per cent. The enrollment by grades was as follows: In the seventh were 2717, or 9 per cent of the total language enrollment; in the eighth, 6810, or 22.6 per cent; in the ninth 20,595, or 68.4 per cent of the total of students taking a foreign-language course. The tenth grade has less than four fifths of the ninth-grade language enrollment; the eleventh has only about two fifths of the number in the tenth; while in the twelfth this figure is again more than cut in two.

A report made in 1936 by A. A. Douglass [3] covering 321

[1] "What Should Be the Nature of Foreign Language Study in the Junior High School?" *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. 4 (1925), pp. 210–214 (Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio).

[2] "Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools, A Committee Report," *North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. 1 (1926–1927), pp. 106–138.

[3] "The Next Steps in Improving the Secondary Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 11 (April, 1936), pp. 205–214.

California high schools shows that a large minority of the schools offering languages below the ninth grade were contemplating, or had made, the change to a later beginning in foreign language. They would offer it first not earlier than the ninth grade. The reason for setting the ninth grade as the starting point is not that students are starting language study in great numbers in the last year of junior high school, but that four-year high school sets in here and many pupils begin foreign-language study when they start on the senior-high-school course. Reasons for postponing language study until senior high school are evident from conditions revealed by the various studies mentioned. The vogue in the United States seems to be the two-year course, which, if finished in junior high school, leaves a disastrous period of disuse before entering college, when the course may be continued. Also the fact that the junior high school is often housed on the same grounds with the senior high school where modern-language teaching is being done with better facilities, may have furthered the tendency to postpone foreign language to the senior high school.

Other recent studies indicate the relative popularity of the different modern languages. Jacob Greenberg [1] in 1928 made the following observations about language courses in New York City: French is the popular language; German is growing slowly; Italian is studied chiefly by children of Italian parentage; Spanish is declining. In 1932 it was found that of the total modern-language enrollment in 119 Western high schools, 63 per cent was in French, 29 per cent in Spanish, and 8 per cent in German.[2] The following table [3] indicates the relative popularity of the languages as indicated by a nationwide survey made in 1925:

[1] "Problems in Foreign Languages," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (March, 1929), pp. 377–86.

[2] Anna von Tobel, "Modern Languages in High Schools of Fifteen Western States," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (March, 1932), pp. 512–514.

[3] Carleton A. Wheeler, *Enrollment in the Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States*, p. 342 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1928).

FOREIGN-LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT IN PUBLIC SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN THE SPRING SESSION OF 1925

LANGUAGE	GRADE						
	7	8	9	10	11	12	Total
French	8,431	18,888	63,127	10,024	105,056	63,393	359,219
German	84	321	3,256	10,393	8,981	4,835	32,870
Spanish	3,390	10,736	66,568	76,163	62,872	33,668	253,397
Latin	18,077	31,621	244,366	193,809	83,915	83,915	611,680

THE CURRENT DECLINE IN MODERN-LANGUAGE ENROLLMENT

Since the Modern Foreign Language Study report of 1925, statistics on language enrollment are meager, but those available point conclusively to the fact that foreign-language enrollments have been decreasing steadily since the war. The study made by Anna von Tobel of the situation in 119 high schools in fifteen Western states showed that in the year 1930–1931 all the foreign languages together enrolled 31.7 per cent of the total high-school population. This fact was weighed against data for the country as a whole in which Latin alone had five years earlier — in 1925–1926 — enrolled 23.2 per cent of the total high-school population and modern foreign languages 25 per cent.

Statistics for New York City shown in the table on page 20 reveal a steady decline in total language enrollments between 1917 and 1936.

These figures show for New York City that the total foreign-language enrollment has dropped considerably since 1917. Although French and Italian have continued to gain in actual numbers, the other languages have lost ground so that numerical losses and gains exactly balance each other; but in ratio of enrollments to the growing school population the foreign languages have lost very considerably.

DISTRIBUTION BY PER CENTS OF OCTOBER ENROLLMENTS IN FOREIGN-LANGUAGE CLASSES IN NEW YORK CITY

YEAR	FRENCH	GERMAN	ITALIAN	SPANISH	LATIN	PER CENT OF TOTAL HIGH-SCHOOL POPULATION IN ALL FIVE LANGUAGES
1917	23.2	27.1	.1	25.3	24.3	103
1920	30.7	.1	.2	45.6	23.4	90
1925	35.8	5.9	1.2	29.3	27.8	81
1931	44.0	11.5	2.1	25.0	17.4	72
1933	45.3	14.1	2.7	23.2	14.7	69
1936	45.5	10.6	5.1	24.3	14.5	61 [1]

We note that there has evidently also been a general falling off in junior-high-school enrollment in foreign languages. J. M. Glass showed that this was the case in the country as a whole even so early as 1924.[2] In 1936 we find in New York City only 43 per cent of the junior-high-school population enrolled in modern languages.

The Gosling report showed that in 1925 foreign languages were taught in over 83 per cent of the junior high schools studied,[3] and Marshall found that in 1925 all of the 33 large cities covered by his study offered foreign language in junior high school. E. M. Clark found that by 1927 [4] only 23 out of 80 California schools offered foreign language in the seventh, and 77 out of 80 in the eighth grade.

One reason for the great drop in total foreign-language enrollments has undoubtedly been the loss of enrollment in Latin in

[1] Total includes 124 pupils in Greek and 1539 in Hebrew.

[2] *Curriculum Practices in the Junior High School and Grades Five and Six* (The University of Chicago Press, Chicago; 1924).

[3] *Op. cit.*, p. 137.

[4] "Report of the Committee on Foreign Languages in the Junior High School," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1927), pp. 13–18.

a new emphasis on the importance of the more directly practical subjects. The reason for the loss in German has patently been the World War and the anti-Nazi sentiment aroused since 1933. The effect of the war on total enrollment in modern-language courses has already been dsicussed.

An even more significant factor in the recent dropping off of foreign-language enrollments has been the great reappraising of fundamental values in education that has been continuously taking place since the war. This reappraisal has led to a new educational emphasis on personal and social problems at the sacrifice of cultural and academic achievements. The movement has involved a shift from traditional subjects and toward training for community and personal living, a shift that has been instanced by a marked shrinkage in enrollments in science, mathematics, and foreign languages, and a great influx into the social studies.

SCHOLARSHIP IN THE MODERN-LANGUAGE FIELD

In recent years there has been considerable research in the field of modern language and its teaching. The Modern Foreign Language Study, which sponsored many of the important studies in this field, came to an end in 1928, but was continued as the Committee on Modern Language Teaching of the American Council on Education, to carry on further studies and experimentation. The new committee consisted of seven members as follows: A. Coleman, J. P. W. Crawford, R. H. Fife, Chairman, H. E. Ford, V. A. C. Henmon, R. K. Hicks, and E. B. de Sauze. Under its care the following compilations were issued: A. Coleman, *An Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching*, 1927–1932, and a second volume covering 1932–1937; and by the same author, *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, 1934.[1] H. Keniston's *Spanish Syntax List* appeared in 1937.[2] The French and German syntax counts by A. Coleman and E. W. Bagster-

[1] All three published by the University of Chicago Press.
[2] Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York, publisher.

Collins respectively are still in progress and will be published later.

This committee was dissolved in 1934. A small appropriation from the Carnegie Foundation and the Carnegie Corporation was granted the American Council to maintain contact with the field of modern-foreign-language teaching and for carrying out limited studies. The Council appointed a new Committee on Modern Languages, with R. H. Fife, chairman; A. Coleman, secretary; and V. A. C. Henmon, H. Keniston, J. B. Tharp, and George R. Zook of the American Council on Education as members. The program adopted by this committee provided for the completion and publication of the frequency lists of French, German, and Spanish syntax that had been undertaken by the earlier committee; standardization of a college reading test in French by F. D. Cheydleur; the preparation of an analytical bibliography of modern-language teaching to cover the years 1933–1937; the collection of data on research in teaching problems; and the study of the relationship between oral and aural skill by J. B. Tharp.[1]

As to research and experimentation which is being carried on in various parts of the country, there have been three reports. The plan for collecting these data proceeded from the National Federation, which authorized Otto Bond to undertake it. He made a report of this survey in 1934[2] but was unable to make the next annual survey. J. B. Tharp was accordingly given the assignment.[3] Professor Tharp also made the third survey and summarized in it the findings of the three reports.[4] The

[1] R. H. Fife, "The Committee on Modern Languages of the American Council on Education," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Oct., 1936), pp. 11–13.

[2] "A Preliminary Survey of Research and Experimentation in Modern Language Pedagogy," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (May, 1934), pp. 551–556.

[3] Reported in the "Second Annual Survey of Research and Experimentation in Modern Foreign Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1935), pp. 31–36.

[4] "Third Annual Survey of Research and Experimentation in Modern Foreign Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Oct., 1936), pp. 36–41.

questions asked in the questionnaire of the third survey, 5500 copies of which were sent out, were as follows: Is there any research going on? Who is directing it? Date when begun? What published results are available? Specific problems being investigated? What changes have been made, or are proposed, in your foreign-language curriculum?

A good summary picture of what was found is given in Tharp's table,[1] reproduced on the next page.

Tharp remarks that Course Planning had moved from third to first place since the 1935 survey; Teaching from eleventh to sixth place; and Foreign Contacts from fourteenth to eighth place.

Studies of curricular changes loomed large among the research undertakings reported. Both changes in methods and administrative changes were the subject of investigation, the first in 69, the second in 89, instances.

Minnie Miller's[2] compilation of syllabi of fifteen states and large cities affords a cross-section of practice and conditions in 1936, although most of the syllabi studied date from some years earlier. W. V. Kaulfers reports on an experimental study, recently undertaken at Stanford University, of modern-language and English curricula.[3] This is reported more fully on page 39.

The *Review of Educational Research* reports currently the results of research in modern-language teaching. Reports of research and experimentation available to the end of 1938 are discussed in this book along with the specific fields of subject matter with which they deal.

A bibliography of scholarly publications in the field of modern-language research, together with a list of graduate courses given

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 39.

[2] "Annotated Bibliography of Courses of Study in Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Jan., 1937), pp. 247–253.

[3] "The Need of a New Concept of the Foreign Language Curriculum," *H.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1937), pp. 155–168. See also his "Expanding Scope of the Foreign Language Curriculum," *Educa.*, Vol. 58 (March, 1937), pp. 432–441, with approximately the same content.

RANKING ORDER OF THE CATEGORIES OF RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION

1936 RANK	1935 RANK	CATEGORY	DESCRIPTION	STUDY CARRIED ON BY		
				High School Teachers	College Students and Instructors	Supervisors and Professors
1	3½	Course planning	Unification of aims, minimum essentials	36	9	2
2	3½	Methods	Reading, individualized, group, aural-oral, etc.	19	16	1
3	1½	Reading	Testing, materials, teaching techniques, values	10	19	
4	1½	Vocabulary	Techniques, devices, lists, testing, control	7	16	1
5	7½	Testing	Techniques, placement, progress, achievement	10	8	
6	11	Teaching	Teacher-training, surveys, practice procedure, results	2	12	1
7	5½	Special courses	"Survey," "honors," "scientific," etc.	8	5	1
8	14	Foreign contacts	Overseas study, radio, films, "realia"	2	11	
9	11	Oral-aural training	Aids, time values, methods, stress, testing	6	4	
10½	7½	Psychological factors	Forgetting, correlations, processes, aptitudes	2	7	
10½	11	Phonetics and pronunciation	Testing, methods, stress	1	8	
12	5½	Grammar and syntax	Frequencies, testing, time values	3	2	
13½	14	Language failures	Causes, correction, sectioning, etc.	2	2	
13½	16	Language errors	Types, analysis, correction, prevention	1	3	
15	14	Composition	Marking, planning, errors, values, testing	1	2	
16	9	General language course	Planning, evaluation	1		
17	17	Memory work	Types, value, procedures			

by professors in the forty-two leading universities, although published in 1914 [1] is still useful, particularly since there is nothing comparable of more recent date. Many of the standard works on

[1] C. H. Handschin, *Facilities for Graduate Instruction in Modern Languages in the United States* (Miami University Publications, Oxford, Ohio; 1914).

foreign language which a teacher should know are listed in the Appendix of this volume.

Periodicals outstanding in reporting scholarly research in the modern-language field are: Quarterly publication of the Modern Language Association of America, Cambridge, Massachusetts, $5 a year; *Modern Language Notes*, Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore, Maryland, ten numbers a year, $5; *Journal of English and Germanic Philology*, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois, quarterly, $3; *German-American Annals*, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia (ceased publication in 1919); *Modern Philology*, University of Chicago Press, quarterly, $4; *Romanic Review*, Columbia University, quarterly, $4; *Germanic Review*, Columbia University, quarterly, $4; *Scandinavian Studies*, 116 East Sixty-fourth Street, New York; *Monatshefte für den Deutschen Unterricht*, University of Wisconsin, Madison, eight numbers a year, $2; *Language*, Bennet Hall, University of Pennsylvania, quarterly, $5; *Hispanic Review*, University of Pennsylvania, quarterly, $4. Names and addresses of journals devoted to principles and methods of teaching modern languages are given on pages 447–448 of the Appendix. In these there are also frequent scholarly linguistic studies.

With the turn of the century publications dealing with the pedagogy of modern-language teaching began to grow numerous. The first book on methods was published in 1904.[1] This was followed in 1905 by a translation from German of a book on methods.[2] The first book to give something of a history of modern-language teaching in the United States together with discussion of its present status and a bibliography appeared in 1913.[3] For the articles dealing with language teaching, which

[1] E. W. Bagster-Collins, *The Teaching of German in Secondary Schools* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1904).

[2] L. Bahlsen, *The Teaching of Modern Languages*, translated by M. B. Evans (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1905).

[3] C. H. Handschin, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States* (United States Bureau of Education; 1913).

were growing more numerous, there was until 1916 no professional organ excepting the slight *Bulletin of the New England Modern Language Association* and *Die Monatshefte* of the Lehrerbund. Such articles therefore had to find their way into the general educational journals.

THE GROWTH OF A PROFESSION OF MODERN-LANGUAGE TEACHING

The establishment in 1883 of the Modern Language Association of America evidenced the conscious existence of a profession of modern-language teaching. This association is still the only organization in the country devoted exclusively to modern-language scholarship. Until 1911 it also took an active interest in pedagogical matters in the foreign-language field, but with the founding of the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers in 1916, the growth of its constituent associations, and the founding of the *Modern Language Journal* in 1916, the more strictly pedagogical aspects of modern-language teaching were dropped from its active interests. The Modern Language Association of America has many departments and functions, including the support and direction of scholarly study, the development of publicity enterprises and programs, responsibility for discussion of all the modern foreign languages and literatures and of the various branches of literary and philological study. Its annual meeting is held in the Christmas holidays in various sections of the country in turn and occasionally in Canada. Its members are largely college and university teachers, but secondary school teachers are also found among them.

Soon after its founding the Modern Language Association of America appointed committees to study the prevalence of modern-language courses in the country and the general conditions under which these courses were given. The resulting report of the Committee of Twelve, published in 1898, was the first report on methods of foreign-language teaching in the United States.

It was the guiding star of modern-language teaching for many years. Since the time of this first report the United States Office of Education has from time to time compiled and distributed statistics in this field.

At the close of the century modern-language teachers were being given only a rather unspecialized and unscientific sort of training by normal schools and colleges. The training of teachers in general was, however, being improved. Certification and professional training were receiving more and more attention from departments of education. Neither the teachers' college nor the liberal-arts college, it was felt, was alone able to give this training properly. However, the teachers' colleges were training most of the secondary-school teachers and placing them, too, since state regulations began to require professional credits and practice teaching as prerequisite to a teaching certificate, and since these were obtainable directly from the colleges there was a close relation between colleges and appointing agencies.

By 1900, liberal-arts colleges were beginning to institute special methods courses in modern language. By 1905 there were numerous such courses being given in the larger universities and colleges. The fact that there was, and is, in these courses a good deal of content matter in addition to method has tended to the development of special pedagogical courses in the various languages.

The question whether these courses in the principles and methods of modern-language teaching should be given by the language department or the department of education is continually argued, but it is now widely conceded that both should have a hand in it. This belief finds expression in various state regulations. The general practice today is for such courses to be handled by these two departments jointly — the practice teaching, studies in curriculum, tests and measurements, and general educational method being given by the department of education, the special-method and the content courses by the language department.

With growing improvement in the science of education and its application to teacher training, certification, teacher tenure, and progress in higher education in the early years of the century, there naturally developed a professional attitude not only among teachers in general but among teachers of each special branch of subject matter. It came to be generally recognized that teachers not only needed contact with those who were able to widen their conception of teaching as a profession but they also needed study and discussion of the problems relating specifically to the teaching of their special subjects. Organizations were needed for this purpose as well as to sponsor publications representing the various groups of teachers professionally and disseminating scholarly contributions to their special branches of study.

Teachers' associations devoted to professional aspects of teaching in secondary and higher schools began to spring up, beginning with the New England Modern Language Association in 1903. Its object was to improve the quality of teaching and to give the secondary-school teacher an organization. This association was followed shortly by similar ones in New Jersey, New York State, and the Middle States and Maryland. All these were open to teachers of all modern languages.

By 1916 there had been occasional meetings of modern-language teachers at various places in the West, notably at Chicago, with programs providing for discussion and the reading of papers. In the East, there were by this time four regional and state associations. The need was becoming apparent for a national organization and a national official organ. Accordingly eight representatives from the four Eastern associations and eight from the Central West met in Cleveland during the 1915 Christmas recess and there founded the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, providing for the publication of the *Modern Language Journal* to begin the following October. Under this stimulus there were founded within a few years regional, state, and city associations covering practically the entire country.

In the course of a few more years the teachers of the several modern languages felt that their problems were so diverse that they founded separate organizations for the several languages. The German teachers, of the great cities principally, had already founded their Lehrerbund in 1870, with two short-lived official organs and since 1899 *Die Monatshefte für deutsche Sprache und Pädagogik*. But the oldest of the great national teacher organizations is the American Association of Teachers of Spanish. There followed the American Association of Teachers of Italian, the American Association of Teachers of French, and the American Association of Teachers of German, each with its own official organ. All these associations are constituent members of the National Federation.

The founding in 1924 of the Modern Foreign Language Study, hereafter frequently referred to as the Study, was another important landmark in the development of foreign-language teaching. This Study was financed with funds from the Carnegie Corporation and sponsored by the American Council on Education. The Study made the first national survey of the field, sponsored the publication of a series of professional writings, and also sponsored a series of teaching experiments and testing programs. The work of the Study has stimulated numerous experiments and studies on the part of others, and its publications constitute the most authoritative body of fact yet compiled on modern-language teaching. Its importance in the field of modern-language teaching would be hard to overestimate.

Problems for Study

1. Write a historical sketch of the teaching in this country of the modern language in which you are most interested. Indicate the sections of the country and the kinds of schools in which it is most taught. See Handschin's *Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States;* E. W. Bagster-Collins' *Studies in Modern-Language Teaching;* R. F. Seyboldt's *Source Studies in American Colonial Education* and "The Private School," *I.B.*, No. 28 (1925), pp. 10 ff.

2. What minor modern languages are taught in our public schools? In what parts of the country is each found? See Wheeler's *Enrollment in Foreign Languages*, etc.

3. Make a bibliography of the greatest contributions made in the past ten years to scholarship in the modern language in which you are most interested. See the *American Year Book*, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York; Handschin's *Facilities for Graduate Instruction in Modern Languages;* publications of the Modern Language Association; and books published before 1914 dealing with the language in which you are most interested.

4. List the associations of modern-language teachers in your state. Name any in the various other regions of the United States. See the inside front cover of the *Modern Language Journal*.

5. Where would you look for current data on enrollments in modern-language classes in the United States? Where would you look for information about publications of the Study?

Chapter Two

Objectives

THE selection of subject matter for an educational program and the development of a method for presenting it will be first of all determined by pupil needs, and by the ways in which the program may serve them. This definition of the basic functions of a course must be the first concern of all persons responsible for planning or giving it. Attainment of these functions then becomes the objective of teaching, and both curriculum and method may evolve from it.

It is generally accepted that the essential concern of our teaching must be the development of wholesome individuals, fitted to make a living and to play a proper part in our common life. This rearing of young Americans, curriculum-makers as well as modern-language teachers have come to realize, is a far more vital concern than the fate of any particular subject in the curriculum. This point of view has resulted in a new conception of subject matter in terms of its possible functioning in the pupil's life.

Courses of study have accordingly come to be classified in two general groups — those that prepare the pupil to make a living and those that train him to coöperate with other individuals in such a way as to make life satisfying and wholesome for him and for the community in which he lives. We therefore have the tool subjects, designed to give the pupil specific useful skills — reading, writing, number study, and various specific vocational skills — and more or less distinct from them those subjects that give the pupil an understanding knowledge of, and an ability to enjoy, his social and cultural heritage and to become an effectively functioning member of groups of which he finds himself a member. In this second category belong the cultural and artistic

subjects as well as those that have come to be known as "social studies."

Foreign languages have a definite contribution to make in each of these categories. Their usefulness in the first will depend on the specific needs for a foreign language that arise in the pupil's life. The extent to which they function in the second regard will depend largely on the shaping of the language course and the quality of the teaching done. In order that this end of language teaching may be well served, it is important that a long-range view be taken of its possibilities for contributing to the growth of the pupil as an individual and as a member of society.

With the departmentalization of subject matter in our schools teaching came to be absorbed with certain specific skills or informational content that as a consequence of their detachment from the significant stream of life experience frequently became devitalized and useless. Foreign languages suffered no less than other subjects in the school curriculum in this respect. The need is consequently urgent for a thoroughgoing analysis by every modern-language teacher and administrator of the contributions his work may make to vital and significant educational objectives.

OBJECTIVES DEFINED

The "Cardinal Principles" of education, as promulgated years ago by a committee of the National Education Association [1] and since become the *magna charta* of education, set up as the objectives of secondary education (1) health, (2) command of fundamental processes — reading, writing, number, (3) worthy home membership, (4) a vocation, (5) citizenship, (6) worthy use of leisure, (7) ethical character.

Since the promulgation of the Cardinal Principles, various writers have reformulated these objectives, stating them in more modern terminology that stresses particular needs which have be-

[1] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, United States Bureau of Education, 1918, Bulletin Number 35.

come increasingly important in our changing society. F. Bobbitt, for instance, adds to the original list religious, parental, and general mental activities, for at least one of which the teacher of young children [1] need feel no concern. They have also defined criteria for judging teaching objectives: (1) Any educational objective should be so clearly stated as to indicate the appropriate means of attaining it, as to method, materials, and mental processes; (2) it should appeal to both students and teachers; (3) it should be attainable to a satisfactory degree by the majority of the class under the given circumstances; and (4) it should comport with the aims of education in general.

The objectives so far indicated are in no way the special or particular concern of the language teacher, but they must be continually in his view if his contributions to worth-while educational aims are to attain significance. Fortunately a number of the ultimate teaching aims of education are by-products of regular classroom life when it is properly conducted. Others are achieved by slight auxiliary suggestion or attention on the part of the teacher. Always, however, the teacher's example is of prime importance, and he may have the comforting feeling that certain changes for good are going on in his pupils in season and out when he provides the proper example in the classroom. That such incidental objectives of any specific course are being realized even better than the prime objectives is generally believed, although we have no direct evidence supporting this belief.

CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

The general development of individual character is to some extent affected by every person and every environment under whose influence the pupil comes. The language teacher accord-

[1] *How to Make a Curriculum* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston; 1924). See also David Snedden, *Sociological Determination of Educational Objectives* (J. B. Lippincott Company, Philadelphia; 1921).

ingly has the opportunity shared by all classroom teachers of encouraging the development of emotional health and strength of character. Particularly where pupils are adolescent is it of tremendous importance that the teacher accept full responsibility for this part of his functions. Discussion of the ways in which the classroom teacher may and should create opportunities for character training and emotional guidance are properly outside the realm of a volume dedicated specifically to the teaching of foreign languages and will accordingly not be undertaken here. Every language teacher should, however, acquaint himself with the best professional thought on the subject and by it appraise all his teaching habits and plans.

The foreign-language teacher should assume to a considerable extent the responsibility for providing such training, with a clear view of its ultimate contributions to the mental and emotional health of the pupil.

THE SOCIAL FUNCTIONS OF EDUCATION

More and more the preparation of pupils for informed and thoughtful participation in social living is coming to be viewed as a major end of education. And more and more the borders of the community are being extended until the concept of social living includes life in the international society as well as in the national and local.

The opportunity of modern-language teaching for developing the attitudes and understanding and skills that contribute to effectual preparation for such social living must be thoughtfully considered and kept continually in mind if the language course is to achieve its fullest importance.

The social importance that mastery of a foreign language and knowledge of a foreign literature may attain is self-evident. One who would understand the point of view of other people must be able to communicate with them freely and to interpret their artistic expressions, revealing as they inevitably do more of the

essential temper and aspiration of the people than can be indicated in the intercourse of everyday practical affairs. Facility with a foreign language that will permit such contacts with people of other cultures has furthermore a considerable contribution to make to the enrichment of personal life by broadening sympathies and cultural and social horizons and so adding to the charm and variety of life.

An essential element in a language program that is to have such a properly socializing value must be a determination to present fairly the position from which the peoples to be studied view their problems. The development of a truly international point of view is an important part of the work of the modern-language teacher who would make his course contribute effectively to fundamental educational aims. He must accordingly have the will and the ability to represent foreign civilizations accurately and sympathetically, presenting them objectively and truthfully without emotional bias of any kind. It is, however, vitally important to keep squarely before the pupil, as he studies, the ideals and standards of sound Americanism, in order that aroused sympathy with any differing foreign point of view may not imply loss of understanding for institutions reared on American principles. The employment of Americans as teachers of foreign languages has a special value in this connection, even though there is implied the need for extensive and perhaps expensive study and travel as preparation for fully adequate teaching.

The administrative officer who lives in an atmosphere of educational theory and of curriculum revision and is swayed by the often-voiced opinion that modern-language study has little place in a child-centered or a society-centered school, may be willing to read here the opinions of a few outstanding scholars and school men on the social value of modern language. If modern language is a luxury subject for many, it is absolutely advisable, even indispensable, for all those who would extend their horizons beyond the borders of their local community and function as respon-

sible members of world society. This is evidently the trend of President McCracken's thought, whom we quote as follows:

Surely at the present time, if ever, a knowledge of modern languages can be defended as essential in a society-centered curriculum. Only a parochial view of society would limit us to American frontiers. Thus the advocates of the modern languages, among whom I am glad to enroll, need not retreat to "individualism" as a justification of their branch of learning.

Whether child-centered, curriculum-centered, or society-centered, the modern American needs at least one modern language not his own in his mental equipment.

To sum up, modern languages are the indispensable instruments of internationalism, of comparative culture, and of the correction of chauvinism and parochialism in our national philosophy. They increase the vocabulary of thought as well as the literature of understanding. While recognizing that linguistic study is only one way to culture, American educators will be wisely advised in view of our geographical isolation to maintain modern languages on an equal footing with the social studies, the sciences, and the fine arts as one of the four main-traveled roads to culture.[1]

We may quote also H. L. Smith, the dean of a School of Education:

If the high school exists for the majority, then certainly we must provide each pupil also with all of those ideals which experience and philosophy seem to indicate as necessary for the social welfare. . . . A study of a foreign language should produce a certain kinship of interest which cannot be secured easily through other means. . . . We have a much greater appreciation of the customs, attitudes, feelings, and philosophies of a foreign people when we have participated in their thoughts through the medium of their native language.[2]

E. Galloway has written on the value of modern-language teaching to the movement toward world peace and world trade.[3]

[1] "Modern Language Study," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 442–443.

[2] "Modern Foreign Languages in a Changing Curriculum," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Dec., 1935), pp. 131–142.

[3] "Foreign Peace and Foreign Trade," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 40 (July 14, 1934), pp. 65–66.

The potentialities of modern-language study in improving international relations have also been recognized by the League of Nations Union in its publication, *Modern-Language Teaching in Relation to World Citizenship*.[1] Various institutions in this and other countries have developed and are supporting schemes for encouraging the improvement of international understanding through language study.[2]

R. P. Jameson has delimited the value of the social approach to language study, in an article[3] which also suggests methods and materials of instruction contributing to social objectives.

THE IMPORTANCE OF LINGUISTIC TRAINING IN INDIVIDUAL GROWTH

As a teacher of language the foreign-language teacher has in common with the English teacher certain special opportunities and responsibilities beyond those inherent in all classroom situations. The foreign-language teacher may well find direction for his course through thoughtful consideration of the special function of language skills in individual development.

The role of language in thinking is a subject that has had much attention from scientists, and although its exact function in this respect has not been definitely determined there is no dispute as to its importance.[4]

Through language man not only makes known his thoughts, feelings, and desires but also helps to form them. Ability to think clearly seems to develop with the ability to express thought. Breadth of observation and experience, capacity for making fine discriminations, and thinking with exactness and accuracy are not only evidenced but definitely stimulated by a richly varied

[1] League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London; 1935.

[2] Descriptions of some of these are given on p. 303.

[3] *F.R.*, Vol. 10 (Jan. and Feb., 1937), pp. 214–224, 299–310.

[4] For a recent contribution to this subject see L. S. Vigotsky, "Thought and Speech," *Psychiatry*, Vol. 2, No. 1 (Feb., 1939), pp. 29–54.

vocabulary and habits of effective construction. Slovenly speech habits are conducive to, as well as indicative of, slovenly thought and must never be allowed to develop. The effort of every teacher, most particularly of course the teacher of language, must be to encourage alertness and precision in all verbal habits — in selection, construction, enunciation, speaking, and writing of words for any purpose. Grammatical analysis, word study, exercises in verbal expression and interpretation, may all be made to contribute to this end.

The most vital contributions in the student's linguistic development will of course be made by the teacher of the vernacular, but every teacher whose special concern is verbal expression in any form may well feel a major responsibility for the development of good linguistic habits in his pupils.

PROFESSIONAL OPINION ON OBJECTIVES

Various surveys of schools and of professional writings show an amazing variety of opinion as to what objectives of language study are most important.

In a survey of the opinion of administrators and teachers as to reasons for offering foreign-language courses in junior high school [1] the following replies were received: no reason, 94; for college entrance, 97; cultural value, 25; for commerce and travel, 16; tradition, 15; parents' or pupils' demands, 14; to prepare for senior high school, 8; contagion of sentiment, school in university town, 6; Spanish-speaking community, 5; as aid in study of English, 5; to prepare for contacts with foreign element in city, 4; opportunity to begin early, 3; disciplinary, 3; other reasons, 5. The reasons are pretty generally indicative of those that might be found to obtain on any grade level.

The same study reports the following replies to a question as to what are the objectives set up for the foreign-language course:

[1] T. W. Gosling, "Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools. A Committee Report," *Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. 1 (1926–1927), pp. 106–138.

help in English, 136; help in English grammar, 36; to increase English vocabulary, 29; cultural development, 126; preparation for college, 99; help in later language study, 69; for practical, commercial needs, 63; disciplinary, 52; to broaden field of exploration of pupils' capacities and tastes, 27; to develop a speaking knowledge, 25; to foster international understanding, 19; to stimulate desire for language study in senior high school, 10; to meet parents' demands, 8; other objectives, 8. Although again some of these items apply only to the junior-high-school situation and are so patently indiscrete and unparallel as to defy classification, they evidence the fact that a wide variety of professional opinion exists as to the functions and objectives of foreign-language study. This lack of agreement may be further indicated by a summary survey of magazine articles on the subject, although there is considerable evidence here to the interest of educators in general cultural and developmental objectives rather than immediately practical ones.

Increasing stress continues to be laid on the development of the ability to get or convey worth-while ideas through the medium of a foreign language. Not only will a new form of expression be developed but new areas of thought.[1]

The common goal from the first year to the last of the language curriculum is the cultural one.[2]

E. A. Meras stresses the general educational value of foreign-language training, valuing it chiefly as a transmitter of the social heritage.[3] B. Q. Morgan [4] stresses its importance in providing

[1] W. V. Kaulfers, "The Expanding Scope of the Foreign Language Curriculum," *Educa.*, Vol. 58 (March, 1937), pp. 432–441.

[2] "The Foreign Languages in the Stanford Language Arts Investigation," *H.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1938), pp. 13–18. Cf. for stimulating ideas on curriculum E. G. Johnston, "The New Curriculum Challenges the Modern Foreign Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 387–395.

[3] "Modern Foreign Languages and the American High School," *Educa.*, Vol. 55 (Sept., 1934), pp. 5–14.

[4] "The Place of Modern Foreign Language in the American High School," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 27 (Feb. 18, 1928), pp. 185–193.

skills that are useful in many other branches of learning. He also values language training as an aid to international comity, as does Meras.[1] W. V. Kaulfers discusses "Foreign Language as a Substitute for Travel," [2] a means of broadening mental horizons and cultural experience. A. I. Roehm justifies it as a part of functional education, its chief function being the development of facility in reading.[3] E. Breazeale values it as an aid to general linguistic ability in the vernacular and for its general cultural uses.[4] M. E. Duckles [5] has much the same opinion. R. H. Fife [6] and H. G. Doyle [7] stress its humanistic cultural values. Other writers lay special stress on its social values and call it a social science itself. W. S. Henrix and R. E. Monroe lay stress on the social values of the language course.[8] Marguerite Richebourg and H. A. Moehlman show ways in which modern languages and social sciences may integrate and so contribute to functional education.[9] K. W. Dykema shows how modern-language train-

[1] "Why Continue to Teach Foreign Languages?" *F.R.*, Vol. 10 (Feb., 1937), pp. 277–284.

[2] *The High School Teacher*, Vol. 11 (March, 1935), pp. 67–68.

[3] "Defending Modern Languages before Our Curriculum Revisers," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Dec., 1931), pp. 228–231.

[4] "Addressed to our Students: What the Study of French Can Do for You," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Jan., 1937), pp. 239–241.

[5] "The Case for Foreign Language in the High School," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Feb., 1934), pp. 305–312. See also B. Q. Morgan, "Why I Believe the American High School Should Teach Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1935), pp. 24–26; M. Pargment, *Why Study French?* p. 5 (Henry Holt & Co., New York; 1936); L. A. Wilkins, "Language Appreciation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1935), pp. 27–30.

[6] R. H. Fife, "Why Teach Modern Languages?" *Yearbook of the National Society for Study of Education*, Pt. II, 1937, pp. 193 ff.

[7] H. G. Doyle, "The Modern Languages in American Education," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 26 (Nov. 12, 1927), pp. 559–603.

[8] "A Social Approach to the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (April, 1935), pp. 527–536. See also K. J. R. Arndt, "Should Americans Teach Foreign Languages?" *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 42 (July 27, 1935), pp. 127–130.

[9] "The Modern Foreign Languages and the Social Sciences in Harmony: A Dialogue," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Jan., 1936), pp. 195–200.

ing may form a bond between the rising generation and their old-world ancestors in great numbers of American communities.[1] I. W. Brock wants emphasis in language work placed on social values, by which he means educating for community life.[2]

THE OBJECTIVES APPRAISED

In 1922 the author of this volume set up the first published list of specific aims of modern-language teaching.[3] Subsequently the Study extended this list by analysis and amplification to include the following:

A. Ability to read the foreign language with ease and enjoyment.

B. Ability to communicate orally with natives of the country whose language has been studied.

C. Ability to communicate in writing with natives of the country whose language has been studied.

D. Increased ability to pronounce and understand foreign words and phrases occurring in English.

E. Increased ability in the accurate and intelligent use of English.

F. Increased power to learn other languages.

G. A more effective realization of the importance of habits of correct articulation.

H. Increased knowledge of the history and institutions of the foreign country and a better understanding of its contributions to modern civilization.

I. Increased ability to understand ideals, standards, and traditions of foreign peoples and Americans of foreign birth.

J. Development of literary and artistic appreciation.

K. Development of a more adequate realization of the relation of the individual to society.

L. A clearer understanding of the history and nature of language.

M. Increased ability to discern relationships and to make comparisons between subjects allied in form and content.

[1] "New-Type Terminal Courses in Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Jan., 1937), pp. 282–284.

[2] "Social Emphasis in Language Work," *Educa.*, Vol. 54 (May, 1934), pp. 536–538.

[3] *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, Introduction (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1923).

N. Development of habits of sustained effort.

O. The ability to make prompt and effective use of foreign discoveries and inventions.

P. Development of social adaptability through increased personal contacts with natives of other countries.[1]

In its list of objectives the Study sought to advertise the wares of the modern-language teacher and to set down what might be achieved by him under ideal conditions. It was recognized, though, that all the objectives could not be attained in any one course even though every circumstance was entirely favorable.[2]

In order to get a consensus of the opinion of teachers as to the validity and attainability of the objectives listed, and to determine to what extent they were actually being realized, the Study sent out copies of the list with a questionnaire to 465 teachers in secondary schools. The answers of 439 of these teachers indicated that in the two-year course 36 per cent believed that half their pupils attained reading ability, objective A, to a reasonably satisfactory degree; 18 per cent of the teachers reported the belief that half their pupils reached a satisfactory degree of proficiency in speaking, objective B; 40 per cent of the teachers believed that half their pupils achieved a reasonably satisfactory degree of ability to write a foreign language, objective C.

Tests administered by the Study showed that in the two-year course in the secondary schools the pupils in the lower-ability half did not attain any of these three objectives with any degree of effectiveness.

It was assumed by the Study, and generally confirmed by the returns on the questionnaire, that in the classes covered by the Survey the general fourfold aim of language teaching had guided the teaching. This so-called fourfold learning of modern lan-

[1] R. H. Fife, "Preliminary Report on the Modern Foreign Language Study," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (March, 1925), pp. 339–343.

[2] See W. V. Kaulfers, "Outcomes as Objectives," *F.R.*, Vol. 9 (Feb., 1936), pp. 224–230.

guages has reference, obviously, to the development of the four principal language skills — listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Of these four instrumental, or proximate, objectives, reading, it has been generally agreed, is the one of most importance in the United States. It has indeed been the one pursued almost exclusively in the two-year course in many of the schools most outstanding for their achievement, although, particularly since the report of the Study in which was incorporated the recommendation of businessmen that speaking ability was of value in a commercial career, there has been some attention to cultivation of this ability in high school as well as in college.

Results as well as theory confirm the opinion, however, that the fourfold aim of teaching is not desirable for classes of widely varying ability and interests. Certain of the four language skills are of importance to and are attainable by pupils of certain groups and others are not. Speaking skill seems in fact not only unattainable by many pupils but emphasis on it actually interferes with development of reading ability. It is very doubtful whether under even the most favorable conditions of method and organization more than the $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of pupils estimated to have achieved reasonable success in the development of speaking ability could have made this much progress in this skill. And the danger of setting this objective before the many students incapable of attaining it is to impose a serious obstacle in the way of their attaining success in reading. To ask a poor student to speak in a foreign language is to him so discouraging, requiring an inordinate amount of effort with little reward of success, that he has neither spirit nor time nor energy left to do the reading that he otherwise might have been able to do.

The aim of fourfold learning seems, nevertheless, to be stressed frequently by those planning curricula for the two-year course, as has been shown by surveys made by the Study. The explanation of this fact seems to be the conservatism of school people, deference to College Entrance Board examinations, a mistaken

notion that pupils will have need of the four skills, and a love for the direct method that was so valiantly defended by modern-language teachers for three decades.

On the subject of the attainability and validity of the objectives listed by the Study, modern-language experts have discoursed widely if not always acutely. One of the contributions to this discussion was that of Coleman,[1] who offered a revision of the list, more in keeping with what was found in practice in the schools. From the Study list he selected A, D, H, and E as "immediate" objectives that should be striven for in the two-year course, and A, D, H, I, J, E, L, as "ultimate" objectives. For the third and fourth years of study he listed A, C, D, H, L, as immediate objectives, and A, H, D, J, E, L, C, as ultimate ones. The terms "immediate" and "ultimate" as used in this report are no doubt self-explanatory, "immediate" referring to those objectives heretofore indicated as instrumental or proximate, and "ultimate" to the final personal and social gains that might result from them.

The data assembled on the subject lead to the conclusions that objectives A, reading skill, and H, knowledge of the foreign civilization, are the two teaching aims most commonly achieved and most to be desired in the United States. Where all learning conditions are unusually favorable, understanding of the spoken language may well also be included as an aim of teaching — one, by the way, that was omitted by inadvertence from the Study's list. To a very limited extent, and where conditions are ideal, the development of skill in speaking may also be undertaken. The development of writing ability should be undertaken only where it is profitable or necessary to keep students occupied with independent work at their seats, at the board, or in home study. And certainly the attempt should never be made to teach German script in any but advanced courses where there may be some special desire for it.

[1] *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, pp. 107–108 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

Those schools that hold to the fourfold aim of teaching, or even to the twofold aim of developing skills in reading and aural understanding, as many schools do, will find that speaking ability can be cultivated only in the case of the strong students and that where it is attempted the final progress in reading ability for all students will be markedly better if those incapable of learning to speak effectively can be segregated from the others and not distracted by efforts to make them struggle for the impossible.

Although there is no proof that objectives H, I, and J — development of knowledge of the foreign culture and art — are being attained in even the schools where they are accepted as desirable ends of teaching, it is generally agreed that they are proper objectives of language teaching. The development of literary and artistic appreciation may especially be made an aim of the third and fourth years of language study. All three of these objectives, however, depend to a large extent on the quality of the textbooks used and the suitability of their content to the development of that knowledge and those attitudes from which artistic appreciation derives.

Objective K, the development of an adequate realization of the relation of the individual to society, may be termed a social function of teaching and as such has already been treated in this chapter. It can best be inculcated through discussion of suitable reading material and through classroom manners and habits. The class should be considered by the teacher as a small world in which satisfactory relations must be established and maintained just as in the greater society outside.

There is opportunity to achieve objective L, an understanding of the history and nature of language, in connection with grammar study. Generally it is the teacher with considerable philological training and interest who does most with this objective. For him, in fact, there is danger of overdoing it. The course in general language, if there is such a one in the school, should take the responsibility for this objective. However, if it is embraced

as one of the objectives in any one modern-language course, the matter must be very carefully thought out and planned. It is very easy for the enthusiast to dispense information, but unless the information is systematized, and the plan of dispensing it decided on — for instance, being ready to utilize a few minutes whenever they may be available in the grammar period — and systematic quizzing on it done, it will prove rather futile.

Objective M, increased ability to discern relationships and to make comparisons between subjects allied in content and form, is, as stated in the list, quite tenuous, and will perhaps suggest to many teachers little that is specific and concrete. The student may, however, well be led to discern relationships between various grammatical forms, or between the language being studied and one studied formerly. Such learning may have considerable value in integrating the student's whole body of knowledge and opinion.

Objective N, development of habits of sustained effort, is a vitally important one, that may well be a by-product of language teaching. If the course requires ample systematic work and the teacher sees to it that the work is done effectively, this objective is attained as a matter of course. Besides, such work is one of the best character-forming forces, especially if the teacher is able to make the work pleasant by showing uses for it, or by imbuing the work with the spirit of a game, never failing to get a little humor into it; by teaching economical methods of work; and by arousing a cheerful and democratic spirit in the classroom.

Objective P, the development of social adaptability through increased personal contacts with natives of other countries, is of course in general unattainable except as residents of the students' own communities are natives of foreign countries. This is, however, a proper ideal and a very commendable one. There is the possibility of second-hand, occasionally first-hand, contacts with people of other nations through meetings of church groups and other organizations. At such meetings the foreign language

is occasionally used, and foreign attitudes and customs interestingly dramatized. Then there may be lectures, and even plays, by foreigners in the school or community. The least the teacher should do toward this objective is to make his students aware of all such opportunities and encourage making use of them. It is doubtful, however, if much social adaptability or a spirit of international understanding or tolerance results directly from these activities.

The whole question of transfer of the skills acquired in study of a foreign language to ability in the vernacular or to the study of a different language, the transfer comprised in objectives E and F of the Study's list, has received considerable attention from foreign-language scholars. The extent to which Objective E, increased ability in the accurate and intelligent use of English, may be achieved through study of a foreign language has been studied in several experiments. Starch found that the study of foreign languages materially increases a student's knowledge of English grammar, but only slightly increases his ability to use English correctly.[1] In a later study he finds that training in foreign language seems to have produced a distinct effect in greater fluency of words in writing and in more rapid perception of words in reading.[2] An investigation of this matter by Woody gave negative results.[3] His explanation of this fact is that the aim was not consciously worked for in the classes studied. But Limper [4] found that the student's English was improved by the study of foreign languages, even though this aim was not con-

[1] " Some Experimental Data on the Value of Studying Foreign Languages," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1915), pp. 697–703.

[2] "The Value of Studying Foreign Languages," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 25 (Apr., 1917), pp. 243–248.

[3] Clifford Woody, "The Influence of Teaching of First-Year French on the Acquisition of English Vocabulary," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 149–179 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

[4] L. H. Limper, "The Effect of Having Studied a Foreign Language in High School on the Ability of a College Freshman to Use English Correctly," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 35 (Nov., 1927), pp. 676–680.

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sciously stressed. S. R. Miller and T. H. Briggs [1] found little improvement in English from translating Latin, while Price and others [2] found that third-year French and fourth-year Latin students did not write acceptable English translations in State Board examinations.

The most important study of this question is that by O. H. Werner [3] of 438 high-school and 267 college students studying modern languages, and 286 and 69 not studying them. The results of 14,493 performances on standardized English tests led him to the following conclusions: Study of a foreign language aids high-school pupils materially in the development of speed and comprehension in reading in the vernacular but it does not so affect college freshmen. Study of a foreign language apparently interferes with the development of ability to punctuate correctly and to detect faulty sentence structure. Mr. Werner also concluded that the lower the mental ability of the student, the greater the chance that study of a foreign language will interfere with his developing desirable abilities in English, and *vice versa;* only where the student's mentality is somewhat above the average does study of a modern language encourage development of desirable abilities in English. As the upshot of this experimentation we may conclude that with the better students there is some value to English through modern-language study when this aim is set up, kept in mind, and tested frequently.

The extent to which Objective F, increased power to learn other languages, is a legitimate claim for modern-language study was studied by E. J. Swift,[4] among others. He found a decided

[1] "The Effect of Latin Translations on English," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 31 (Dec., 1923), pp. 756–762.

[2] W. R. Price, H. G. Thompson, and E. B. Richards, "Translation English," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 23 (Jan. 9, 1926), pp. 51–56.

[3] "The Influence of the Study of Modern Foreign Languages on Desirable Abilities in English," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 99–115 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

[4] *The Mind in the Making*, pp. 244–253 (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York).

advantage in the study of Spanish from antecedent study of Latin and German. He concluded that transfer of training in grammar study from the study of one language to that of another seems probable. The Classical Investigation showed that there is a carry-over effect from the study of Latin to that of French. This Cheydleur confirmed through a significant experiment.[1] Rice's important study[2] further corroborates this conclusion and adds that the carry-over from Latin to French is not more advantageous than that from Spanish to French. He states more broadly that extended study of any foreign language does help considerably in the acquisition of a second foreign language, but study for only one year of a foreign language possesses very little transfer value in the acquisition of a second foreign language.

The objectives not individually discussed here — D, G, and O — seem to be essentially duplications of others in the list or may be assumed to develop as by-products of teaching without conscious attention to them. O overlaps with A as does D with B.

Among the most important of those that may be considered natural outgrowths of proper teaching is N, which will develop in every course where teaching deserves its name. G may also be expected to result without special effort from all proper teaching, particularly from all language teaching.

In general, however, it may be helpful to summarize the desirable and attainable objectives of foreign-language teaching as contributing to three principal understandings and points of view; namely, *language consciousness*, an intelligent awareness of language as an interesting and important element of the environment; *social consciousness*, an understanding of present social conditions in the light of the experience of other people; *literary*

[1] F. D. Cheydleur, "Results and Significance of the New Type Modern Language Tests," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (April, 1928), pp. 513–531. See especially p. 526.

[2] See *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 435–471 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

culture, the enrichment of meaning of the objects and events of daily experience through a capacity to sense and enjoy the elements of beauty comprised in them. Teaching must of course contribute directly to the development of the specific skills — preeminently reading in the United States — essential to acquiring the facts and attitudes inherent in these points of view.

OBJECTIVES VARIED FOR DIFFERENT KINDS OF SCHOOLS

The extent to which different types of schools may need to differentiate their objectives is a matter that may well be given some consideration.

In college, under favorable conditions and with a two-year course of at least four hours of recitation a week, objectives A, D, G, H, I, may be realized, with N and O as by-products. There will also likely be twice as much reading done here as in the two-year course in the secondary school and therefore possibly twice the progress made toward the attainment of objectives H and I. In special sections in college, in which the best students and prospective teachers are gathered, objectives B and C may be embraced in addition, and the extent of attainment in A, D, G, H, I, increased. This may well remain the program for the third and fourth years likewise, with J and L as additional objectives.

Commercial language schools will naturally concentrate their whole effort on the development of utilitarian skills — speaking and reading.

Although the classical or general arts high school generally sets out to achieve the fourfold teaching aim with all students in foreign language, it occasionally offers specialized language courses for students in the field of commerce, science, art, or social studies. It seems evident, however, that encouraging specialization of language study on the high-school level is a mistake, for the broadening work of the language course with an art or social-studies emphasis has special value for the technical or commercial student, who will in the rest of his work probably

get far too little of this type of study. Whatever is of primary importance in developing an understanding of a foreign civilization seems likely to be of at least as much value to the future clerk or craftsman as it is to the professional worker or housewife.

SPECIAL OBJECTIVES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The junior high school presents a special problem. Junior-high-school organization has been designed to provide for certain special needs common to children of seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade age. Where foreign-language courses are offered in the junior high school, it is important that they take cognizance of these needs and adapt their provisions to them.

The following list, compiled by L. V. Koos as the result of his study of a great body of literature on the subject,[1] gives a summary indication of the purposes generally held to be served by the junior-high-school plan of organization — the improvements in school conditions that may be served by a junior-high-school set-up. These reveal various needs for which instruction at this grade level may well be designed.

1. Realizing a democratic school system through
   a. Retention of pupils
   b. Economy of time
   c. Recognition of individual differences
   d. Exploration and guidance
   e. Beginnings of vocational education
2. Recognizing the nature of the child at adolescence
3. Providing conditions for better teaching
4. Securing better scholarship
5. Improving the disciplinary situation and socializing opportunities
6. Effecting financial economy
7. Relieving the building situation
8. Continuing the influence of the home
9. Hastening reform in grades above and below
10. Normalizing the size of classes
11. Relieving teachers

[1] *The Junior High School*, p. 17 (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1927).

It is readily apparent that many of these functions pertain directly to administrative problems or indicate needs that exist on all grade and age levels. Among them, however, are several suggestive of special needs that should have thoughtful consideration in planning courses in any subject for the junior high school. Among these is the need, particularly great at this level, to stimulate interest in school work, for this is a period when many children develop a strong desire for independence and a consequent rebelliousness against the discipline of school attendance. This need implies the importance of giving special consideration to individual differences in working with pupils of junior-high-school age. The need for training in study habits to encourage "better scholarship," for "improving the disciplinary situation and socializing opportunities," for "continuing the influence of the home," all suggest that the modern-language teacher can let himself become absorbed with academic concerns even less on the junior-high-school level than on higher ones. Throughout the language course in the junior high school special emphasis must accordingly be laid on study methods, on the development of ethical thought and wholesome character, and on socializing attitudes and knowledge.

The need for educational and vocational guidance at junior-high-school age suggests the importance of providing pupils with the opportunity to experiment widely in an attempt to discover their special aptitudes and tastes. This need has been one important reason for the establishment of general language courses in junior high schools. These courses have also served the purpose of establishing, before specialization of study is properly begun, a broad foundation of language training that should orient thinking, deepen understanding, and provide fundamental skills and knowledge that will serve in any special branches of language study taken up later.

Specific language objectives suitable for pre-adolescent children demand special consideration. Listening and speaking will

through these years continue to be more important than the reading and writing that later achieve positions of first place.

VOCATIONAL FUNCTIONS OF MODERN-LANGUAGE TRAINING

The advantage of bringing the point of view of the practical businessman to the planning of the language course is readily apparent. His knowledge and experience can contribute significantly to the development of the utilitarian values of language training. English educators recognized this fact when in preparing their great report on the modern foreign languages [1] they consulted businessmen on the needs for school language training as indicated by the conditions of English foreign trade. Although the recommendations of American businessmen were not so specifically requested when the Modern Foreign Language Study report was compiled, many businessmen were among those questioned about the value that modern-language ability had had for them, and their recommendations were taken into consideration in shaping the objectives finally set forth.

The danger of stressing the utilitarian objectives of language study is of course readily apparent. Practical interests must not be permitted to interfere with the fullest functioning of the language course as a cultural and developmental agency. But it is important that the practical ends that may be served by foreign-language study be carefully surveyed and appraised by those planning or administering such courses.

As a tool, foreign-language ability will serve scholarly purposes, particularly for students of science, engineering, or literature. As a vocational asset it has more value than is generally thought.[2]

[1] *Modern Studies, Being a Report of a Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain* (His Majesty's Stationery Office, London; 1918).

[2] See G. H. Betts and R. A. Kent, *The Foreign-Language Equipment of 2325 Doctors of Philosophy* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois; 1929).

In the Federal government alone there are 411 positions requiring some ability to use a foreign language. There are well over a hundred persons engaged by the government full time, or nearly full time, in translating. Besides these the new governmental agencies, which do not feature in the civil-service records from which these figures were taken, employ a number of persons who must be able to use foreign languages. In addition to all these there are 171 positions as inspectors of customs in California, Arizona, and Texas that require a speaking knowledge of Spanish.

Law courts in many localities also require the services of expert interpreters and translators on either a full- or part-time basis.

The numbers of positions in private industry requiring a knowledge of foreign languages can be only very vaguely estimated, but the chairman of the Research Committee of the Society of Federal Translators states that "wherever there is a firm, corporation, or institution which receives foreign-language matter which is for use, there is need for a translator." Certainly there is an opportunity for the person with foreign-language ability to claim an asset. Many industrial or commercial concerns employ their own translators, as may be indicated by the fact that in Dayton, a city of about 201,000, there are three such positions. The stenographer who can take dictation in a foreign language or translate English dictation into another language is finding increasing opportunities for his special abilities.[1] Both W. L. Schwartz [2] and M. E. Bowler [3] have published check lists of occupations open to persons trained in foreign languages.

[1] See also *Americans Should Study Modern Languages* (Teachers' Leaflet No. 14, United States Office of Education); *Practices and Objectives in Training for Foreign Service* (Conference Report Bulletin No. 21), and *General Information for Applicants and Sample Examination Questions* (both from the United States Department of State, Government Printing Office; 1936).

[2] "Vocational Opportunities for Foreign Language Students," *M.L.J.*, Supplementary Series No. 1 (George Banta Publishing Co., Menasha, Wisconsin. 25¢).

[3] "Are Languages Practical?" *F.R.*, Vol. 5 (Nov., 1931), pp. 141–145.

In many large cities business firms are turning to commercial translation bureaus for service which is being supplied in constantly increasing volume. There are now more than eighty such bureaus functioning in New York (Manhattan), Chicago, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Detroit, Baltimore, St. Louis, and Washington. All these offer vocational opportunity to trained linguists.

Objectives of language teaching should be set in the light of the needs involved in these conditions.

Problems for Study

1. Would you justify teaching modern language on practical utilitarian or on other grounds principally? If on other grounds, what are they?

2. Sketch your own philosophy of education very briefly. See *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, United States Bureau of Education, 1918, Bulletin Number 35; D. Snedden's *Sociological Determination of Educational Objectives;* W. C. Bagley's *The Educative Process* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1905), pp. 3–4, 8–10, 14–15, 29–33; William James's *Talks to Teachers* (Henry Holt & Co., New York; 1913), pp. 23–24, 26–29.

3. List the best reasons for teaching French, German, Spanish, or Italian in a school and be prepared to defend them before the board to which you are applying for a position to teach the language in an industrial city with a two-year senior-high-school course from which 75 per cent of the students are going as skilled labor into local industry and 25 per cent are going to college.

4. If you had your choice, what objectives would you most like to work for, and to what school circumstances would you consider them most suitable?

5. What objectives are valid in the following circumstances? Case 1: Teacher well trained in fourfold aspect of the language; only two-year senior-high-school course in language; in the community large population of the racial group represented in the language study; all the students going into the glass industry as skilled or unskilled labor after graduation. Case 2: Teacher able to speak but little, otherwise well trained; school with woefully inadequate library; administration with but scant appreciation of value of modern language; two-year course.

Case 3: Industrial town with large population of German descent; two-year senior-high-school course; teacher unable to speak German, otherwise well trained; boy graduates go partly to higher school in engineering and chemistry. Case 4: Small town; two-year senior-high-school course; Board of Education supplies the books and does it very inadequately; only class texts a beginner's book for the first year and a second-year book for the second year; considerable interest in the modern language in town. What objectives could a new teacher undertake in these different situations? What could he do to improve the general situation? How soon could he hope to transform the situation? With whom would he have to work in order to do this if he wanted to keep his job?

Chapter Three

General Method

THE first step toward effective teaching or learning is to decide on the objectives. The second is to decide on the best methods of attaining these. Before going into detailed discussion of methods of teaching such varied elements of the language course as pronunciation, conversation, grammar, writing, word and idiom study, reading, study of the foreign civilization and literature, it is important to consider the matter of a governing principle for the course as a whole. This subject will be the concern of this chapter. We shall not discuss method historically [1] nor shall we discuss commercial language systems, but will rather attempt to indicate the various methods of approach common in high schools and colleges and the varying emphases that result from these.

That there is a considerable variation in method used in our schools has been shown by the surveys made in 1929 by the Modern Foreign Language Study, in 1926 by Gosling, and in 1936 by Douglass. This lack of unanimity as to method is also seen by Rice [2] as a serious menace to the effectiveness of language teaching. He expresses the belief that in the inevitable progression of pupils from one teacher or from one school to another this variety of method "spells repetition, poor preparation of succeeding classes, and discouragement of the student." Proper supervisory policies tend to reduce the lack of unity in basic method

[1] For a terse historical statement of method, available at a nominal price, see the *Report of the Committee of Twelve* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1905). L. Bahlsen's *The Teaching of Modern Languages* (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1903) also gives a short account.

[2] G. A. Rice, "An Analysis of the Classroom Practices of 210 Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages," in *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 448–456 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

within any language department or school system, but the hope of developing accord among language teachers as a whole seems more remote.

METHOD

Method was inquired into by Gosling [1] through a questionnaire listing three general classifications of method — direct, grammatical, and mixed.

While these three classifications are hardly adequate for purposes of the present discussion, they indicate roughly the types of approach common in the language course and have a fairly definite and widely understood meaning, as was indicated by the fact that they were evidently readily interpreted by the teachers answering the questionnaire. "Direct" method is one in which the mother tongue is barred from the classroom; the "grammatical," or "grammar-translation," method is a process of translating and studying grammatical rules and principles; the "mixed" method is a compromise of the two, a method that we shall more commonly refer to as "eclectic."

Although names applied to anything so largely controlled by the human element and personal considerations as is a teaching method must necessarily be generally descriptive rather than narrowly restrictive, there is definite value in their use. Some discussion of methods generally identified by descriptive labels and of their comparative weaknesses and merits may have considerable significance as a means of orienting the thought of the teacher toward his general teaching plan as well as toward the problem of achieving specific objectives in the various realms of subject matter. Although the terms used in the discussion throughout this book differentiate more finely among methods than do the three terms used by Gosling, they indicate the same general variations in essential viewpoint.

[1] *Op. cit.*

The Gosling survey found thirteen of the cities canvassed to be using the direct, and nineteen a mixed, method. This preference for the mixed method involved a definite shift from, and an enriching of, the older grammar-translation method that had for long held sway and marked great progress in the reform of language teaching in general. There were no modern-language teachers who reported allegiance to the grammar-translation method, although forty-three Latin teachers clung to it. It is interesting to note, however, that the Latin teachers solicited all evidently understood the significance of all three terms, although they had adopted the direct method in only two instances. It was obviously not ignorance of the new method that kept them from using it. In fact some of its principles had been combined with those of the grammar method in a majority of the cases reporting. But conservatism in adopting the new method *in toto* marked the Latin teaching.

In a study made by Douglass in 1936 [1] an eclectic method was again found to predominate. The direct method was found used in modern-language courses in nine cases; a modified direct method — that is, an eclectic method — in forty-five; and the grammar-translation method only once. This study shows the field to be divided, as the Gosling report showed it, between the direct and the eclectic methods, with the latter predominating. Syllabi of junior high schools from various large cities and all parts of the country indicate this situation to maintain generally.

The Modern Foreign Language Study in 1929 issued to a selected list of superior schools a questionnaire regarding method. It was shown by the answers that in these schools the majority of teachers were using in the first two years either a direct or an eclectic method. The commonly employed method throughout the language courses was either a direct-eclectic one or a grammar-translation plan enriched by various devices from

[1] A. A. Douglass, "The Next Steps in Improving the Secondary Program," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 11 (April, 1936), pp. 205–214.

the direct-eclectic method. This situation did not prevail, however, in the common run of schools throughout the country. If one visited schools widely or examined pupils from secondary schools — particularly on such a scale as the College Entrance Examination Board did — inspected teacher-training courses in colleges, visited college beginners' classes, studied syllabi or school programs, or noted the large sales of grammar-translation-method textbooks, one saw that in practice we were far removed from the direct method.

The reasons for this failure to adopt a direct method in actual practice were several. Teachers were not trained to use the method; the courses were too short for its effective functioning; there were not enough direct-method textbooks; and the College Entrance Board was still testing on the basis of a grammar-translation method. Moreover the spoken language is much more difficult to learn than the written language is. For while more than 40 per cent of the five thousand most frequently used French and German words — possibly Spanish and Italian words also — are either similar in spelling to the corresponding English words or are easily inferred from context in reading,[1] practically all of them are new words if used actively. Much time and energy are accordingly required in the direct method for attaining skills that have little or no importance for the average student. For the opinion of practical businessmen was generally accepted that speaking knowledge of a foreign language is not needed for trading purposes, that it is generally possible to use English in carrying on business with foreign countries. A method that aims, as the direct method does, at achievement of fourfold learning is therefore wasteful for the mass of our students.

[1] C. H. Handschin, "The Question of the Most Economical Learning of Vocabulary," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Dec., 1932), pp. 195–199. Cf. also C. F. Sparkman, "Bilingual Reading Texts for Beginners," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (May, 1930), pp. 201–212, and "A Neglected Item in Teaching Reading," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 15 (June, 1930), pp. 110–111. See too H. R. Huse, *Psychology of Foreign Language Study* (University of North Carolina Press; 1931).

In the light of recent study we are wondering today why we should ever have embraced the direct method in any but the most favorable set-ups in high schools, except that we saw the inadequacies of the grammar-translation method, even if only reading ability was the objective. With secondary and college students, a group that was more highly selected in the first decade of this century and possessed a consequently higher level of intellectual quality than it has today, results from the new method were comparatively good, though, and there were no positive norms of achievement available to call attention to the inadequacy of the reading ability developed by it. As a matter of fact, however, even the most ardent reformers were not using pure direct method but an eclectic plan, with reading as the chief aim and enough oral practice for *Sprachgefühl* and to start future teachers of foreign language on their way. We did not practice segregation into strong and weak sections as the method required, for usually the numbers taking the language courses were too small to permit such sectioning of classes. Some teachers were, however, providing special treatment as best they could for various groups within their classes.

THE GRAMMAR-TRANSLATION METHOD

Although the grammar-translation method, which was at one time in almost complete control of the modern-language field, has in the last two decades steadily lost caste, it is still in use sufficiently to merit note here. It bases on the indirect principle — approach through the vernacular. Its objective is reading ability and its method is the development of a working knowledge of the grammar followed by exercises in silent reading and translation into the vernacular. No stress is generally laid on pronunciation or on a knowledge of the foreign civilization.

This may still be thought the most effective method for adults who want to learn to read in the shortest possible time. It has the advantage of offering a clear-cut task and an easily testable

objective. It suffers, however, from an obsession that a full knowledge of grammar is necessary for reading, forgetting that all our children, and even adult foreigners among us, learn to read English without knowing much of English grammar.

This method has the further advantage that it is easiest for self-instruction. With the help of a good English translation of the foreign-language work to be read — for instance an English Bible, if reading the Bible in the foreign language is an aim — one can do practically without a teacher. The present-day interlinear [1] or interpage [2] translations, and the new "visible vocabulary" [3] texts, attest the usefulness of this principle for certain purposes and for certain kinds of learners.

THE "PSYCHOLOGICAL" METHOD

The so-called psychological method of Gouin, Betis, Swan, and others is a direct method based on the principle of mental visualization. The student is supposed to get foreign words in his mind through his impression of actual objects, pictures, gestures, and then attach the foreign word to this image, thus establishing a strong bond between the foreign word and the idea it expresses. Of course when the meaning of the foreign word cannot be conveyed, even by gesture or picture, the vernacular word must be given. The vocabulary that can be developed by this method is very considerable, however, dealing principally with the objects and actions of everyday life.

Gouin, a Frenchman, who is the author of this method,[4] took the words that he considered essential to the student's vocabulary and arranged them in groups centered about such broad sub-

[1] For instance, Hauff's *Die Karawane* (Harper & Brothers, New York; 1936).

[2] Meno Spann, *Interlinear German Readers* (University of North Carolina Press).

[3] *The Visible Vocabulary Series* (D. C. Heath and Co., Boston).

[4] See F. Gouin, *The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages*, translated by H. Swan and V. Betis (Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 1907).

jects as school, home, community life, farm life, etc. He then constructed series of sentences on various phases of these subjects. Combing one's hair might, for example, be the subject of such a sentence sequence in the larger unit on home life. The sentences might read as follows: "I comb my hair. I approach the dresser. I stretch out my arm. I grasp the comb. I raise it to my head. I draw it through my hair. I look into the mirror. I make a parting in the middle. I lay the comb down. I leave the dresser." Because the sentences were arranged in such series in the method, Gouin's plan came to be known as the "Series System." Most of the series consist of fifteen to eighteen sentences with supplementary phrases for facilitating the use of foreign language as the medium of intercourse in the class. Since the series are mostly concerned with action, verbs receive much emphasis, a fact of considerable significance in view of the importance of verbs in any language.

In the classroom the series are taught orally, the class learning each series first by hearing and speaking it. The procedure is as follows: The teacher announces the theme of the series, laying stress on the verb and conveying the meaning of the words by gesture, pointing to object, performing the action in pantomime, or drawing a hasty sketch on the blackboard. If there is a word which the class cannot understand by any of these means, he says, *Ça veut dire en anglais*, and gives the English word. The teacher watches closely to see that all have understood. Now the class repeats the sentence as a class and, as far as necessary, individually, and so on through the series, punctuated by several reviews by the whole class of what has preceded, and of the whole after it has been finished.

The homework consists in writing the series in a notebook with mutations of number, person, tense, etc., and of speaking the whole aloud from memory until it has been memorized. The next day's recitation consists of running off the series orally, each student giving a sentence, or one student giving more, or all, of

the sentences. Blackboard work consists of writing the mutations, previously written out as homework. After the class has mastered the series, copies of it on loose-leaf sheets are handed out. Reading in literary texts comes later.

This system has had its greatest vogue in France [1] and England,[2] less in Germany [3] and the United States.[4] As a means of teaching the vocabulary of everyday life, the method is excellent. The natural sequence of the actions described in a series facilitates remembering the actions consecutively, and the context facilitates remembering the words. As a system of memorizing it is unexcelled. The vocabulary, however, is not what one needs for reading ability. Unfortunately no frequency word lists were used, nor indeed were any to be had at the time Gouin wrote.

THE "NATURAL" METHOD

Although the "natural" method of language learning is little heard of now, it served its turn in defining and developing new points of view in the teaching of foreign languages. The advocates of the natural method contended that one should learn a new language as a child learns its mother tongue. On this belief their method was based. The procedure chiefly comprised conversations — often monologues with gesticulation, by the instructor, and imitative speaking by the class. Reading was begun only after some ability in speaking had been attained; and grammar was introduced only after these other two abilities had been developed to some degree, as in learning the vernacular. The

[1] For Gouin's own series, see *Les séries domestiques et champêtres*, etc. (Gouin, Paris; 1895).

[2] V. Bétis and H. Swan, *The Facts of Life: Part I — School; Traveling; Plants* (Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 1904).

[3] R. Kron, *Die Methode Gouin oder das Serien System in Theorie und Praxis*, etc. (Elwert, Marburg; 1900).

[4] *Series Lessons for Beginners in Spanish; French Series for Beginners; German Series for Beginners* (Series Publishing Company, Oxford, Ohio); and *Series Lessons for Beginners in French; in Spanish* (Bruce Publishing Company, Milwaukee, Wisconsin).

advocates of the method did little, however, in inventing concrete devices and materials for the help of teachers. The method, perhaps partly for this reason, never became a regular school method and had not the support of scholarly study by its proponents, although it did become a part of the method of commercial schools of languages in which speaking is the first objective. The greatest names associated with the natural method are G. Heness, L. Sauveur, C. Kroeh, and M. Berlitz.[1]

THE GERMAN "REFORM" METHOD

The German "reform" method was launched about 1880 as a reaction against the traditional grammar-translation method in vogue up to that time. Sometimes the reform method is called the phonetic method, since in it much stress is laid on precise pronunciation of the foreign language. Many of its followers even went so far as to use phonetically transcribed texts for some time at the beginning of the course. Wilhelm Vietor, the most prominent of the leaders of this method in Germany, was a phonetician.

The method is planned to develop the fourfold skills of hearing, speaking, reading, and writing. It avoids any use of the mother tongue except as indicated below. Many devices were invented and much honest work was put into sifting and improving these and in spreading a knowledge of the method among the profession. Breymann, Münch, Walther are names prominently connected with it. In 1900 it was adopted as the official method in Prussia.

The reform method is really an eclectic method, in that, as contrasted with the direct method developed in France, it employs the mother tongue in teaching difficult phases of grammar and uses some translation in advanced stages of the course. It also makes extensive use of objects and pictures at the beginning of the course, studies grammar inductively, and lays stress on a knowledge of the foreign civilization.

[1] See the *Report of the Committee of Twelve* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1905).

It is significant that the chief popularity of this method has been in countries where there is a need of speaking ability in foreign languages and where the course is much longer than in the schools of the United States.

DIRECT METHOD

The "*methode directe*," the method that has been officially in use in France since 1901, arose in the train of the German reform method. It was promoted prominently by Schweitzer and Simmonnot. This method is Simon-pure direct method, with the mother tongue completely banished from the classroom. The fourfold learning is the aim. Many of the devices of the reform method were taken over, including phonetic instruction, which was made the basis of the beginning instruction. We note here that there are in France as in Germany conditions of language instruction — a need of speaking ability in foreign languages and general provision for their extensive study — quite different from those in the United States.

The great merit of this method lies in its effectiveness in developing a fundamental linguistic ability conducive to the realization of the fourfold teaching aim.

There is a set of habits peculiar to each language — of thought, of intonation, of position of words, of grammatical accidence, etc. — which together make up the genius of the language. Successive states of consciousness with all their peculiarity of feeling, willing, and thinking as expressed in consecutive speech are so different from the corresponding states of consciousness that find expression in another language that it is impossible often for one unfamiliar with a language to get the exact significance of a whole sentence even though the meaning of all the individual words in it be known to him. To get the set of habits from which develops ability to appreciate and to express the genius of a foreign language is impossible by a method which alternates in the learning activity the two sets of language habits,

as does translation from one language into another. To form new habits is, as we well know, psychologically impossible under these circumstances. There must be for a time — according to standard prescription — a complete break with the old habit and a definite substitution of the new for it. Here is the warrant for the use of a direct method. This is the reason for immersing the learner completely in foreign sounds, constructions, words, intonation, etc., especially in the initial stages of his study or until the new habits have had time to form. This is the explanation also for the failure of translation methods to impart a "feeling for" the new language; i.e., to establish new linguistic habits. The teacher of indirect methods is doomed to defeat in this regard since he is attempting to teach new speaking habits in the environment of the old ones, and since his method is running counter to the fixed modes of reacting on the part of the pupil.

The reform and the direct methods — really a combination of them — were adapted as well as might be to conditions as they were in the United States in the first decade of this century. The Report of the Committee of Twelve, which had been published in 1898, did not satisfy the younger generation of students of methods who had in part been schooled in Germany and France and had seen the working of these methods there. This younger generation therefore embraced the direct method, as it was here called, used it in their own classrooms, and wrote about it in professional publications. They were so successful in having it widely adopted in theory and made so popular by demonstration in superior schools that syllabi, university presidents, textbooks, and teachers gave this method right of way, at least all gave lip service to it. This situation marks the provenience of the eclectic method as it is still found sporadically in the United States.

THE DIRECT-ECLECTIC METHOD

The direct-eclectic method was therefore the American compromise with the European systems in vogue at the end of the

century. In practice it is characterized by the following kinds of work: (1) great care in teaching pronunciation, especially the first days and even the first weeks of the course; (2) oral treatment of texts before they are presented to the eye, although reading later becomes the center of instruction; (3) exclusion of the mother tongue from the classroom as far as possible; (4) grammar taught inductively, in connection with oral work; (5) much free composition on matter that has previously been learned by hearing and speaking it; (6) translation reduced to a minimum and barred from elementary instruction altogether; (7) use of realia and texts to teach the foreign civilization.

The direct-eclectic method erred, however, in laying too much stress on speaking ability, thereby failing to achieve real reading ability, today admittedly the chief need of students in the United States. The use of modern achievement tests soon made this failure evident. Teachers using the direct-eclectic method reported, according to the Study's questionnaire, that only 30 per cent of their pupils were getting real reading ability; but they did not know how to remedy this situation. They felt that the chief causes lay in conditions beyond their control — in the facts that the intellectual quality of high-school pupils was deteriorating and that because of increasing high-school enrollments modern-language classes were getting too large for efficient teaching.

Here the beneficent work of the Study set in. First the questionnaire showed the collective opinion of select teachers regarding methods and results, and testing programs corroborated this opinion. Next, the Study proposed to restrict teaching objectives to those of actual value to the majority of students. When this proposal suggested a new shift in emphasis from speaking to reading ability, the weakness of the direct-eclectic method as a method for all schools to adopt became apparent.

There are still numerous schools aiming at the fourfold learning, and where this aim is achievable and desirable, we may expect

the direct-eclectic to continue; but only there. For only this fourfold learning is the direct-eclectic method justifiable.

THE NEW READING METHOD

Testing programs have shown that progress in reading ability is greatest when there is extensive reading of appropriate material both in and out of class, when all objectives except reading ability are relegated to the background, and when a minimum of attention is given to grammar study. Out of a realization of these facts there developed a teaching plan that came to be known as the "new reading" method.

In its report the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association indeed recommended a reading method; that is, a translation method. It did not recommend the use of reading texts from the very beginning of the course nor careful work in pronunciation. There was to be little or no oral work and the amounts to be read were slight. The reading exercise most relied on was translation. Great importance was attached to the use of good English in this translating. In practice the first year of the course was devoted to translation both into and from the foreign language, to the learning of paradigms and conjugations, and at least half the year to grammar study. This was far removed from what we today understand by a reading method.

The origin of the reading method must be sought in the scientific work done in analyzing the teaching of English. It was found by analyzing vernacular reading methods that the best results were obtained where the amounts of silent reading were large and where such other factors were made use of as the employment of material appropriate in vocabulary, diction, and content to the age and ability of the learner, and when physiological and hygienic hindrances were so far as possible eliminated. The application of these findings to foreign-language study was based on an assumption which was partly substantiated by experiments made by Buswell that the principles of teaching reading

are the same for a foreign language as for English and that the same methods would be applicable. Buswell recommended the reading method of teaching foreign languages on the basis of scientific analysis of the eye-movements used in reading.[1]

The new reading method, as forecast by the findings of the Study and finally formulated by Coleman,[2] deserved a much better reception than it received. The manner of its presentation, more than its substance, accounted for the lack of warmth with which the proposal of the Study was received. Much criticism was directed against the report for the reason that, although the material was generally known to the Committee on Direction and Control of the Study before it was published, the precise proposal as worded by Coleman was not known to them and shocked and disappointed some members. Other conservatives, persons poorly acquainted with conditions in secondary schools, and individuals who feared that the method proposed would encourage superficiality and lack of thoroughness, voiced their opposition loudly. However, the proposal is based on voluminous fact, is conceived in the spirit of helpfulness, and presents a challenge to all interested in progress. Perhaps it should have been represented as an emendation of practice already partly in use in the best schools rather than as a new principle or method. It must, of course, also be kept in mind that the specific objective of the method is reading ability, with all other objectives subordinated or entirely disregarded.

APPRAISAL OF METHODS

The attempt of the Study to evaluate methods was given up as it was found that certain ones that seemed theoretically questionable actually brought good results in good schools and because other problems needing study seemed more promising of results.

[1] *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1927).

[2] *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

Scores made on standardized tests, however, confirmed the commonly held opinion of the efficiency of the reading method.

We may give here the chief findings in regard to appraisal of methods. The first survey of this field of experimentation was made by C. H. Handschin in 1923. It may suffice here merely to indicate the most important of the findings summarized:[1] If the fourfold learning of language is the aim, the first approach should be aural, the second oral. The memory for objects and movements, or gestures, is greater than for verbal impressions. Ability to recall the vernacular on presentation of the foreign word — that is, translation from the foreign language — is two or three times as great as the ability to recall the foreign word upon presentation of the vernacular — translation into the foreign language. For adults both foreign-word-native-word and native-word-foreign-word learning are superior in point of retention and recall to teaching foreign words by means of illustrations. For children the object-foreign-word method of learning is superior to either foreign-word-native-word or native-word-foreign-word learning. Learning words in sentences or phrases is superior to learning them as isolated words for immediate or deferred recall. What is the best method depends upon the uses to which the learning is to be put. The reading method is superior to the grammar-translation method as measured by accomplishment in grammar, pronunciation, and reading ability.

Later studies confirm some of these findings, refute others.

Mary Olga Peters[2] found the direct method superior to grammar-translation method in better results during second semester, and in dictation, reading, pronunciation, aural comprehension, appreciation, and grammar. The grammar-translation method gave better results in the first semester and in translation, vocabulary, and comprehension as indicated by written questions.

[1] *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, pp. 20–46.

[2] "An Experimental Comparison of Grammar-Translation Method with Direct Method in Teaching French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (May, 1934), pp. 528–542.

V. A. C. Henmon found auditory presentation superior to visual and visual-auditory, and visual-auditory-motor or visual-auditory more effective than visual alone,[1] but M. H. Calkins arrived at conclusions opposite to these.[2] H. Münsterberg[3] found studying aloud superior to silent study, a finding corroborated by L. G. Whitehead,[4] A. van Cybel,[5] and T. G. O'Brien.[6] W. Schoenherr[7] concludes from experiment that the object- or illustration-foreign-word method of learning words is superior to the foreign-word-native-word method. Izhac Epstein[8] found that the foreign tongue is more readily learned if it is learned first through impression, later through expression. S. Witasek[9] concluded from experiment that alternation of reading and recall is more effective than continuous reading without recall.

E. L. Thorndike found reading and rereading superior to the reading and recall method of learning,[10] while L. W. Webb[11] found the reading and recall method of learning paired associates superior to reading and rereading for retention. W. V. Kaul-

[1] "The Relation between Mode of Presentation and Retention," *P.R.*, Vol. 19 (March, 1912), pp. 79–96.

[2] "Short Studies in Memory and in Association," *P.R.*, Vol. 5 (Sept., 1898), pp. 451–462.

[3] "Studies from Harvard University Psychological Laboratory, Memory (Audible and Visual Presentation)," *P.R.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1894), pp. 34–39.

[4] "A Study of Visual and Aural Memory Processes," *P.R.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1896), pp. 258–269.

[5] "Über Zusammenwirken verschiedener Sinnesgebiete bei Gedächtnisleistungen," *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, Vol. 53, No. 1 (1909), pp. 1–25.

[6] "A Qualitative Investigation of the Effect and Mode of Presentation upon the Process of Learning," *American Journal of Psychology*, Vol. 32 (April, 1921), pp. 249–285.

[7] *Direkte und indirekte Methode im neusprachlichen Unterricht* (Quelle und Meyer, Leipzig; 1915).

[8] *La Pensée et la Polyglossie* (Lausanne, Switzerland; 1905).

[9] "Über Lesen und Rezitieren ihren Beziehungen zum Gedächtnis," *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, Vol. 4 (1907), pp. 161–185, 246–282.

[10] "Repetition vs. Recall in Memorizing Vocabularies," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 5 (Dec., 1914), pp. 59–67.

[11] "A Comparison of Two Methods of Studying with Application to Foreign Language," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 29 (Jan., 1921), pp. 58–67.

fers[1] urges abundant use of good linguistic forms in the classroom rather than emphasis on grammatical theory. He also shows that rhythmical form aids retention.

G. D. Stoddard [2] found by experiment with 382 students that translation from French to English yielded a mean score of 14.0, while translation from English to French yielded one of only 7. These scores show translation from foreign to native language to be a more useful learning exercise than translation from native to foreign.

Studies of the method to be used where reading is the chief aim of the language course continue to come in for much attention. C. E. Young with G. E. Van der Beke [3] and again with J. M. Daus [4] developed experiments that showed that a group taught by the new reading method, tested frequently, and given remedial work after each test, was superior in reading ability to a control group taught by the eclectic method. While these experiments are not completely convincing, they point to the effectiveness of the reading method and the value of remedial exercises after a test. M. Pargment [5] concludes from experiment that the pure direct method is not effective in a reading program. He says this method cannot successfully be used in a two-year course "unless we wilfully sacrifice the most important aspect of a language — an intelligent reading knowledge."

Buswell [6] made an extended study of the effect of different

[1] "Facilitating Recall in Language Work," *H.*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1927), pp. 257–264.

[2] "An Experiment in Verbal Learning," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 20 (Sept., 1929), pp. 452–457.

[3] "An Experiment in Second Year French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Oct., 1926), pp. 25–31.

[4] "An Experiment in First Year French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Feb., 1928), pp. 356–364.

[5] "The Effect on Achievement of Method Used," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (May, 1927), pp. 502–512.

[6] *A Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1927).

teaching methods on progress in reading a foreign language.[1] The following statements from his conclusion are significant:

> The method of teaching a foreign language has a striking effect upon the reading habits of students. The maturity in reading which results from two years of study is decidedly greater with students taught by a direct method than with students taught by an indirect translation method.
>
> During equal periods of time, approximately equal degrees of maturity are reached in the study of French, German, and Spanish when these languages are taught by similar methods and under similar conditions. . .
>
> Students taught by a direct method attain in two years' study of a foreign language those fundamental habits which are characteristic of the person who reads. Students taught French by an indirect method attain these mature characteristics of reading in a much less degree. Students taught Latin by the indirect method exhibit these characteristics of reading in no degree at all; rather they exhibit in marked fashion the characteristics of the person who deciphers.
>
> When the objective of teaching a foreign language is ability to read, a perfectly clear-cut choice of method is possible. A direct method produces desirable reading habits; a translation method does not. This seems to be equally true regardless of the type of language — as applicable to Latin as to French.

It is unfortunate that the number of students in the experiment was small, 192 all told, some of whom dropped out before the experiment was concluded; and second, that Buswell did not test the students' comprehension of what was read. However, since the class which had been taught by the direct method ranked high in his appraisal of fundamental reading habits, it seems probable that they did comprehend what they were reading and that the experiment demonstrated a certain superiority for a method that bases language training on the natural process of direct contact between thought and symbol rather than on a study of the grammar and the structure of the language.

[1] An experiment done in Milwaukee schools in 1931–1932 proved inconclusive. See A. Coleman, *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 145–190 (University of Chicago Press, Chicago; 1934).

The most significant results on the value of the new reading method were obtained by F. D. Cheydleur [1] in 1930–1933 on the basis of classes in forty-four high schools and thirteen colleges. The conditions of the experiment were perfectly satisfactory, the numbers of students evidently large and varied enough, and the testing after the best standards. The conclusions of the experiment are, in brief, that the reading method is superior for vocabulary building and for attaining the reading objective; but it is inferior for mastery in grammar. Total achievement exceeds the national norms; that is, the procedure is found to be superior for the attainment of all three language functions combined, namely, vocabulary, grammar, and silent reading. It is superior also for the development of good pronunciation. The method also proved conducive to a low "mortality" of students. On the basis of his findings Mr. Cheydleur concludes that the reading method is the best plan to follow in the average two-year high-school or college course. He does not, however, demonstrate that a "modified direct" or "eclectic" method may not be preferable in longer courses.

After all the presumptive evidence detailed in the other experiments reported above, Cheydleur's findings ought to satisfy even the skeptical that when pronunciation is taught carefully, prepared texts used, grammar studied only for recognition for long periods and later for use only, and about three times as much carefully graded material read as is commonly used, the results of the new reading method are superior to those of other methods.

The fact that the new method is not a radical departure from the familiar direct or eclectic methods should be reassuring to teachers, who are as a group typically very conservative about embarking on new procedure. Moreover, teachers involved in the largest experiments described above expressed their satisfaction with the new type of work and the improved results, especially in attaining the objective of reading ability.

[1] Coleman, *op. cit.*, pp. 100–144.

SPECIFIC LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The selection of a general method by no means settles all problems of specific method for certain kinds of work and of classroom procedure. There remain questions of the specific skills at which teaching must aim and of the devices by which they may be achieved.

The Study survey showed a diversity of classroom practice and of professional opinion regarding actual classroom practice.[1] Of 452 teachers answering the particular question involved, 214 were attempting to develop skill in speaking; of 437 answering a question dealing with training in listening, 249 were found to be attempting to develop understanding of the spoken language. The means to these ends in the first year of study were shown to be as follows: For acquisition of vocabulary in the first year 194 used intensive reading, 217 used intensive oral work, 159 used practice on minimum word lists, 52 used a plan of extensive reading, 232 used extensive oral work, 117 used word lists to fix vocabulary, 157 used extensive reading. Of the college teachers reporting, 81 per cent used extensive reading in the second year. The amount of time given to oral work by the secondary-school teachers in the first year was 50 per cent, 10 per cent of this being given to translation into English, 10 per cent to free composition, another 10 per cent to drill in English, and 20 per cent to translation from English. The college teachers devoted 40 per cent of their time to oral work; 20 per cent each to translation into the foreign language and drill in English; 15 per cent to translation into English; and 10 per cent to free composition, there being apparent an error of 5 per cent in the totals reported.

J. Greenberg makes the following observations about modern-language method in New York City. The Dalton plan is used

[1] A. Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, pp. 241 ff. (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

in some schools; the method used is oral; the class engages as a whole in every exercise; homework consists mainly of review.[1]

The method prevalent in the best schools may, as judged by syllabi, be characterized as follows: oral approach, much oral work, extensive use of pictures and maps and realia to illustrate the foreign civilization, dictation, dramatization, easy reading of appealing cultural content. Some teachers are not favoring the reading approach.

The following activities are suggested by Coleman [2] as elements of an effective teaching program:

1. Learn to pronounce.
2. Learn to understand the spoken language.
3. Practice writing dictation.
4. Learn grammar first to develop ability to recognize the elementary grammatical forms in reading, later to apply grammatical rules in expressing finer shades of meaning.
5. Study intensively one or two pages of each assignment for knowledge of forms.
6. Acquire an active vocabulary of words and idioms by reading and speaking.
7. Read aloud for practice, and answer questions in foreign language.
8. Practice silent reading for comprehension without translating, and keep word lists.
9. Do oral and written exercises with direct-method drills for developing understanding of grammar.
10. Reproduce in English and later in the foreign language passages read or told.
11. Read in the secondary-school classes a minimum of 75 pages the first semester, 125 pages the second, 150 pages the third, and 200 pages the fourth. Outside of class

[1] J. Greenberg, "Problems in Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (March, 1929), pp. 377–386.

[2] A. Coleman, *op. cit.*, pp. 271 ff.

read the following minima: first year, 100 pages; second year, 250 pages.

12. Read in English on the foreign civilization.
13. Read English translations of masterpieces of the foreign literature.
14. Learn about kinships and contrasts between the foreign language and English.

The first three of these activities are pretty generally typical of present practice wherever oral work or even mere vocalization is undertaken; the fourth indicates the style of grammar study frequently followed in the early stages of any course today where grammar is to be learned for recognition only. Indeed, it is the mark of extreme conservatism to make a thorough study of grammar *en bloc* in the elementary course, particularly in its early stages. Activity 5 has been common practice for many years, but it is to be doubted whether it is or will be done very extensively in reading classes as the time can be hardly spared from reading; 6 and 7 are common practice; 8 comprises very excellent ideas now in common use; 9 involves the various devices of mutations in number, gender, case, tense, person, mood, etc., and the blank-space and completion exercises of many kinds that are well known in the so-called direct method. Retelling material in the pupils' own words is another direct-method device. Activity 11 is an innovation and a very important one, for great amounts of reading practice are undoubtedly necessary; 12 and 13 are common practice; 14 is a commendable idea, but it will certainly not loom large in any two-year course either as to amount of time and effort put on it or as to results.

More and more stress, it is readily apparent, is being laid on the utilization of worth-while subject matter as the medium of language learning. Language skills, it is commonly agreed, should be developed from the start through content that is worth reading, writing, or talking about from the standpoint of its cultural or practical significance to the pupil.

Studies have been made of the value of vocalization in the language class. M. C. Barlow showed that for his experimental group as a whole explicit laryngeal responses were more effective than non-laryngeal ones in memorizing.[1] A. G. Bovee showed by a slight study of scores that when oral work accompanied instruction in reading there was greater permanent retention than when oral work was not employed.[2] An experiment in Long Beach, California, shows that a reading and oral conversation method yielded better reading ability than the conventional method.[3]

T. W. Boldyreff asserts that written and printed signs for sounds and meanings do not remain long in memory unless they are reinforced by oral-aural images.[4] A. G. Schmidt disputed this conclusion. He showed that there is no advantage in using two senses in learning linguistic material.[5] J. B. Tharp reports as results of an audition test that oral-aural ability had little effect in final classroom grades except in the case of superior students. He suggests therefore the segregation of superior students in special sections in which oral work is taught [6] to develop conversational skills. S. Baron found that "in order to learn to read a language, the student must have a clear image of its sound, which can best be obtained by imitation of the spoken language." [7]

[1] "The Role of Articulation in Memorizing," *J.Ex.P.*, Vol. 11 (Aug., 1928), pp. 306–312.

[2] "An Indicated Effect of Oral Practice," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Dec., 1928), pp. 178–182.

[3] J. C. Greenup and David Segal, "An Experimental Study of the Relation between Method and Outcomes in Spanish Instruction," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Dec., 1929), pp. 208–212.

[4] "Training Linguistic Thought: Some Experiments with Spanish Phonographic Records," *H.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1929), pp. 591–600.

[5] *The Effects of Objective Presentation on the Learning and Retention of a Latin Vocabulary* (Loyola University Press, Chicago; 1930).

[6] "The Effect of Oral-Aural Ability on Scholastic Achievement in Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Oct., 1930), pp. 10–26.

[7] "The Psychological Basis of Vocabulary Teaching in Foreign Language Instruction" (unpublished master's thesis, College of the City of New York; 1931).

Finally Louise Seibert found that studying aloud is superior to the method of studying silently or studying aloud with a written recall.[1] The latter method gives as good results as the method of studying aloud in the first recall, but is the poorest of three methods as measured by results at the end of forty days. These findings are corroborated by experiments by H. Münsterberg,[2] L. G. Whitehead,[3] T. G. O'Brien,[4] and A. van Cybel.[5]

These experiments and the extensive testing done by the Study in connection with its study of the reading method have supplied ample evidence that the careful teaching of pronunciation is a valid aim of language instruction. The work being done in phonetics; dictaphone drill, pronunciation, and radio exercises evidences a belief in this conclusion.

There are other considerations to lend it support. Since all pupils are to some degree ear-minded, some to a very great degree, vocalization is bound to assist learning and retention. To the extent that a pupil is ear-minded there is sub-vocal speaking that will fix habits of faulty pronunciation and inability to recognize words pronounced unless correct pronunciation is amply practiced in class. Even when speaking ability is not an objective of teaching, it seems likely that correct pronunciation and accentuation and sentence and phrase intonation are a great help in suggesting and inferring meanings, for in many instances pronunciation more directly suggests similarity with the English cognate than does spelling. The French *fatiguer*, for instance, if pronounced *fat-i-gu-er* will probably never suggest the English *fatigue* to the student, as it almost certainly will if pronounced correctly.

Where speaking ability is an aim, it will be developed through

[1] "An Experiment in Learning French Vocabulary," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 18 (May, 1927), pp. 294–309.

[2] *P.R.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1894), pp. 34–39.

[3] *Ibid.*, Vol. 3 (1896), pp. 258–269.

[4] *Am. Jour. Psych.*, Vol. 32 (April, 1921), pp. 249–283.

[5] *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, Vol. 53, No. 1 (1909), pp. 1–25.

abundant practice in emulation of examples of good usage rather than through theorizing in English about forms. Functional practice of special phases of usage will be provided as they are needed in the development of meaningful activities.[1]

G. I. Dale [2] uses "formal" composition at the beginning of a course to fix words, phrases, and idiomatic constructions in the pupils' minds. "Informal" composition is then developed later in the course and is made a means of helping the student to express himself much as he does in his mother tongue. J. Ortega [3] uses "free" composition of assigned themes for the second year, as does A. J. Dickman,[4] who has his students write letters as well as themes on topics of interest from school and everyday life. F. Weill [5] reads a selection to the class. On this students take notes and from these they write original compositions on the same topic. The original compositions are corrected first by the class and later by the teacher. E. A. Meras makes excellent suggestions of composition exercises, and lists topics for free written and oral composition.[6] By class experiment E. H. Hall [7] has demonstrated the efficacy of his plan of developing speaking ability through the use of *tema*. A *tema*, as used by Mr. Hall, is a 50-to-100-word translation into Spanish of an English paraphrase of the Spanish text. The *tema* is finally memorized.

[1] W. V. Kaulfers, "Facilitating Recall in Language Work," *H.*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1927), pp. 257–264.

[2] "Formal and Informal Composition," *H.*, Vol. 6 (Dec., 1923), pp. 348–355.

[3] "Suggestions for Teaching Spanish Conversation and Composition," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (Dec., 1923), pp. 145–158.

[4] "De la composition française," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1927), pp. 180–187.

[5] "Quelques resultats obtenus dans un cours de composition avancée," *F.R.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1928), pp. 60–67.

[6] "The Teaching of Composition," *Educa.*, Vol. 55 (Sept., 1934), pp. 36–40. See also P. Cummings, "Teaching French Composition as Observed in a School in Paris," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Dec., 1937), pp. 213–214.

[7] "Teaching to Talk by Tema," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Dec., 1928), pp. 197–203.

E. R. Goddard has her class make a translation from French, and later has this translated back into French.[1] The original now serves as a model for comparison.

Interest may be aroused in the very first hour of the course by introducing the work so that it yields satisfaction or pleasure — by learning a song and singing it, by looking at beautiful pictures of the foreign country, through reference to current news about great men and women and achievements of the foreign country as reported by the newspaper, newsreels, magazines, or radio. Some initial interest must be aroused, and the sooner this is done, the better. W. V. Kaulfers has recognized the importance of this fact in listing interest as the first aim of the beginning lessons of a course. He lists the objects to work toward in the very first lessons of a modern-language class[2] as follows: interest, utility, ease, progress, effort on the part of the student.

A program likely to arouse interest in the first class hour in the college course has been described by C. R. Goedsche.[3] This comprises an orientation lecture on the relation between English and German. This "telling" method of teaching should not be used in the high-school class, and perhaps for even the college class the same data given out systematically in small installments and sandwiched in among the necessary work of the first days or weeks, would do better.

The following more concrete plan for the opening meetings of a language class has proven itself effective in practice. Have the list of pupils' names before the class meets. See that all the students are there by intention, not by mistake in the confusion of the first school day. Take a good look at the class. See that they are properly seated and the room hygienically right. State

[1] "Retranslation — as a Substitute for the 'Theme,'" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1927), pp. 204–208.

[2] "Launching the Beginning Foreign Language Class," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 15 (Oct., 1930), pp. 128–132.

[3] "A First German Lesson for College Students," *G.Q.*, Vol. 5 (Nov., 1932), pp. 153–160.

that the first step in learning a foreign language is to learn to pronounce it; that, in the case of French or German, more careful enunciation is required, more use of the lips, than in English, for vowels are pure without a glide at the end as they have in English. Start at once to teach the sounds in a word, then in a line of an easy song, reviewing with great care and with attention to each student, and then with much repetition by individuals and by the class as a whole. After all the sounds of a line or of a short stanza of poetry have been mastered, write it on the blackboard. Read it, and then have the class immediately reread it, making sure that pronunciation is correct for the major part of the class and at least fair for the rest. Have the class sing it at the end of the hour when they will not disturb other classes unduly. Ask the class to copy and to memorize the stanza for the next day. Have them make notes to indicate pronunciation of difficult sounds to guide their practice as they memorize. Such a program for the first days of a course is quite likely to arouse an initial interest in the subject and has given the student something pleasurable and profitable to do for the second day.

Emphasis on pronunciation should be continued in all the early lessons. This need not be tedious unless the drills are too long. Some singing and other purely interest-arousing devices, such as showing pictures or developing discussion of current news, may be sandwiched in. Perhaps two or three stanzas of the song begun on the first day may be learned. Perhaps this elementary drill on pronunciation will need to be continued for several days, but as soon as possible reading should be begun. For this books are closed, the teacher speaking and developing understanding sentence by sentence, with the class participating by repeating and interpreting wherever possible.

As soon as pronunciation is good, the class are allowed to have their books open to guess meanings, with minimal suggestions from the teacher. A feeling of progressive accomplishment is bound to result when these early lessons are well planned.

When teaching emphasis is on reading, this feeling is easily developed if the reading matter is the easiest available, contains numerous cognates, contains frequent recurrence of the same words, and new words are fed in slowly. The reading assignments will then for a long time be prepared daily in class with the supervision of the teacher before being assigned as homework, and great care must be taken not to go too fast for the weaker students.

After reading has been developed in this way, it is assigned as homework. Directions for this should be somewhat as follows: "Read the assignment aloud, trying to recall the meanings. Think of the sequence of the thought, for tomorrow you will be asked to answer questions on the content. Study only a short period at a time but go over the material several times at different periods." Homework must always be thoroughly prepared for, the assignment and the method of doing it illustrated and made perfectly clear. Easy, pleasurable work at the beginning is essential to later progress.

Recitations on homework must be kept to satisfactory standards. The teacher is now beginning to know the students. He assigns difficult questions to the brighter students and easy ones to the backward ones. In this way there is a satisfaction for all and a proper feeling of achievement for each. Initial interest and the habit of satisfactory work must never be killed by tedious grammatical work or, worse still, by making the pupil conscious that the work is difficult. There must be a feeling of ease in the early work.

When reasonably good pronunciation, familiarity with the sound of the spoken language, and slight command of the foreign vocabulary and construction are achieved, the bright students should be required to answer questions in the foreign language. Slower pupils may continue to answer in English. Answering in the foreign language may well be voluntary. At first the brightest take it up and in the course of a few weeks most, or all, will be doing it. Conferences with any who do not learn to

answer in the foreign language within a reasonable length of time should reveal specific difficulties and make clear to the pupil exactly what he will be expected to do.

As the course proceeds it is necessary to think of additional forms of training which demand work and give evidence of progress. We may here mention blackboard work. At one time no blackboards were available, and some teachers have not yet learned their value. The blackboard is as valuable — if properly and fully used — as an assistant teacher. After the course is well under way, the blackboard should be literally covered at least once every hour. If half the class can be busy at the board, there is just about double production. Many kinds of blackboard work can be corrected by the best students; for instance, paradigms, conjugations, mutations, completions, etc.

This exercise helps further by keeping the best students working interestedly, when they might otherwise find the class work too easy to challenge their attention.

Various kinds of work can be done at the blackboard: (1) matter worked out at home or in study hour can be copied; (2) translating into English can be done by weak students who are unable to do the oral work being done by the class meanwhile; (3) questions on the new assignment can be done; (4) grammatical forms, conjugations, paradigms can be written, as well as various kinds of exercises contained in the grammar, completions, mutations, or exercises dictated previously by the teacher; (5) the best students can write synopses in the foreign language of the day's assignment.

W. V. Kaulfers' discussion of the daily program [1] indicates the importance of avoiding the use of time- and interest-killing conventional phrases at the opening of the period. He recommends greeting pupils by phrases in the foreign language instead of by the conventional roll call, and even having an incorrigible class

[1] "Management of a Foreign Language Class," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Oct., 1930), pp. 1–9.

rise as the teacher enters the classroom in order to establish order quickly and effectively. He also describes effective ways of disposing of such matters of class routine as relaying papers to the class, collecting home assignments of written work early to prevent further work on it in class, and the like. Mr. Kaulfers, however, reveals himself as a real teacher who handles each class situation according to its special character, and suggests the constant need for such planning by the teacher. The program he has outlined for a conventionalized lesson plan for a 55-minute period, with provision for supervised study, is also highly suggestive:

3 minutes
  Exchange of greetings
  Seating of class
  For simultaneous performance:
    Collection and return of papers
    Checking of attendance
    Oral review recitations
5 to 7 minutes: Oral review drill — routine elements
5 to 7 minutes: Diagnostic test on daily assignment [1]
3 to 5 minutes: Remedial instruction
  Discussion of test items
  Reteaching of difficult subject matter
10 to 15 minutes: Recitation on the daily assignment
  Discussion and correction of written work or
  Oral reading or
  Question-answer exercises or
  Dramatizations, etc.
25 to 30 minutes: Assignment and supervised study [1]
  Preview of the assignment
  Group guidance in methods of work
  Individual independent study
2 minutes: Preparation for adjournment
  Collection of materials
  Passing of wastebasket
  Leave-taking
  Dismissal

[1] Omitted one day weekly in favor of interesting supplementary activities calculated to promote efficiency in the worthy use of leisure.

METHODS FOR ADULT CLASSES

The question of what to do with a class of adults who want to learn to read as speedily and with as great an economy of effort as possible is a problem usually facing the college teacher as well as increasing numbers of teachers of other adult groups. Direct-method advocates believe that oral-aural practice, before or accompanying reading, is the best method to use with adult students, but this is true only to a limited degree.

In college third- and fourth-year classes, however, the medium of instruction should surely be the foreign language, since here there are gathered the future teachers and others with linguistic ability and a real need. Students who are unqualified can be accommodated in courses in the literature and institutions of the foreign country given in English, and the science students in technical translation courses. By this arrangement all needs can be met and all groups served efficiently.

We shall here recommend a method that avoids the weaknesses of the oral-aural method in the adult class, while it achieves the desired ends effectively and efficiently. This method is sometimes called indirect since the approach is not through the foreign language, and it must be kept in mind that it does not aim at full fourfold mastery of a language through seeing, hearing, speaking, and writing, but only through seeing and to a small degree writing.

Teach pronunciation the first class period and portions of the following periods until the students can read aloud intelligibly. Next, start to read in a prepared text, reading the first few assignments aloud with the class before assigning them. Next, translate the daily portion of the text as fast as the class is able. Spend much time teaching them to infer the meanings of cognates — to recognize them and infer their meaning from the familiar English word. This study of cognates must be carefully and extensively developed. It is a vital part of the method. The

pupil can be helped to discover that numerous nouns, simple and compound, and numerous verbs, adverbs, and adjectives, simple and compound, are derived from the same stem and that therefore numerous new words can be recognized because one knows the stem word. Thus French *faim* is related to English *famish* and *famine; aimer*, English *amiable;* and from the German stem *tun* come *tunlich*, *Tat*, *Täter*, *Ubeltäter*, *tatkräftig*, and many other words.

The next step in the method is to insure comprehension of sentences without too slavishly translating. This can be done by performing the exercises generally found in the back of the text. Among them are typically such assignments as: (1) Give the English cognates of certain lists of words in the text; (2) indicate whether statements made in the foreign language concerning points covered by the reading are true or false; (3) answer in English various types of questions stated in the foreign language concerning the content of the reading; (4) express in English various words and idioms taken from the text to insure their recognition when not in context; (5) form infinitives, nouns, compound nouns, verbs, and adjectives from listed stems found in the reading. Continued use of such exercises leads the student to grasp meanings without translating, especially if the class drill is done so rapidly that there is not time enough to translate. It is also important that the student have considerable exercise in vocalizing.

Only the barest essentials of grammar should be taught. It is surprising how little grammar is necessary in order to read well-graded and -prepared texts intelligently. What is needed is to provide a basis for differentiating between cases of articles, adjectives, and pronouns — nouns give little trouble if the article, adjective, and pronoun forms are known — and between persons, numbers, and finally modes of the verb. If the verb forms are recognized, there is no trouble about recognizing the number of the substantives used as subjects. Ability to read a foreign

language does not require knowledge of many of the points of grammar frequently stressed. Among those that may well be omitted from the language course are study of the different cases governed by various verbs, adjectives, and prepositions; to what class a noun or a verb belongs; of what gender a noun is; whether adjectives are weak or strong or neither; word order; sentence order; when to use the various forms of the subjunctive mood; whether participles agree with the words they modify; whether an adjective stands before or after its noun; which tenses are used to express certain conditions or grammatical relationships. Naturally final mastery of a language would entail more grammar study than this, but it is ample for the needs of the hypothetical adult class under consideration.

With this method, it is possible to read as much in a six-weeks summer term in college as freshmen and sophomores in college read in an entire year by the eclectic method or the reading method as it is usually conducted — namely seven hundred pages of material graded for first-year students. A thousand pages and upwards of second-year reading can be covered in a second six-weeks term. A considerable amount of outside reading, done independently, is required in both cases before credit is given. This course has been repeatedly given, in both French and German, with these results in Miami University summer school to both upper classmen and graduates who were carrying a full load of language work.

This method makes effective self-instruction possible from this point on. The student is equipped to continue the kind of reading and exercises he has had in class. If translation into the foreign language is considered desirable, it is recommended that it be done as follows: The student translates a story or other matter into English and then lays it aside until he has forgotten the foreign phrases. Now he translates his English back into the foreign language without reference to the foreign text. He then corrects his translation by comparison with the original. Repeat-

ing the exercise with any passage with which he was not very successful should prove good remedial practice. The foreign text can thus provide the original instruction, review, and examination.

Toward the end of the course for the adult reading class some technical text may be included if there is a need on the part of the class as a whole for this; or technical reading of the easiest kind obtainable, with vocabulary and notes, may be assigned to individuals as outside reading. This reading must then be gone over with the students either by the instructor or by assistants. By this method the writer has had graduate students reading technical literature in science, history, and business at the end of a six-weeks summer term. The grammar-translation method was strong in the matter of setting problems. It has the defect that the problems, because of their monotonous and unrelieved character, requiring continuous translation, become entirely uninteresting and hence repulsive and therefore often useless. In the method here outlined we may reap the advantages of the grammar-translation method but avoid its defect by varying the work, employing more powers, and working on material which has present-day interest.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Certain findings in regard to principles of method of language teaching have importance no matter what specific practices are adopted.

Louise Seibert [1] established the following principles by careful experiment: The whole method of memorizing is superior to the part method for the study of a list of associated pairs of French-English words; distributed learning over a period of ten days is more efficient than the same amount of relearning concentrated at one sitting at the end of ten days; the recitation method is

[1] "A Series of Experiments on the Learning of French Vocabulary," *The Johns Hopkins University Studies in Education*, Bulletin No. 18 (Johns Hopkins University Press, Baltimore; 1932).

superior to the reading method as a method of learning; there is a negative correlation between the time spent on learning and the amount retained; there is a positive and fairly high correlation between the amount retained as evidenced by the immediate recall and by a recall delayed forty days.

All language method must of course be based on sound general principles of learning. Certain of these principles are accordingly reviewed herewith that they may provide a background for analyzing and appraising points of method on language teaching.

In any learning situation it is important that there should be satisfaction for the learner. The modern-language classroom is a pleasant place to go to; the teacher knows how to make things go, he shows interest in each student.

At any moment in the course the student should feel that he had already got something even if he for any reason had to quit school right then. He can read French. He feels confident that he can. He does not worry about it.

The student has a feeling of personal satisfaction in the ability he has achieved. He carries his role well in class and is each day assigned more difficult tasks. His teacher evidently recognizes the growth in his ability. Even his fellow-students recognize it. With a feeling of friendly coöperation in the class there will be frequent expressions of this fact. "He knows his stuff in French!" Even the weaker student gets his due respect for his honest effort and whatever achievement he has attained. "He works hard." "He's making the grade."

Stimuli to interest and concentration have been shown to be essential factors in retention. C. C. Gulette has shown that focalization of attention, repetition, and mind-set are first essentials whatever the choice of method or the skill to be achieved.[1] G. D. Stoddard [2] found that the chief factors in retention of learn-

[1] "Multum in Parvo," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (March, 1932), pp. 470–476.

[2] "An Experiment in Verbal Learning," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 20 (Sept., 1929), pp. 452–457.

ing are attention, interest, and determination to achieve. Pleasure, manifesting itself as interest, is an important incentive to permanence of learning. Pedagogically this means that there must be attention and we know there is little attention without interest. One of the teacher's first tasks accordingly becomes the arousing of this interest; that is, the motivating of his student by pleasurable exercises, by showing values, or by whatever other devices he may develop.

Effective motivation of the student is without question a *sine qua non* of successful teaching. An almost perfect motivation for modern-language study would be the certain prospect for each student of a good position in which he would need the language. There is, however, hardly a pupil in high school and few in college who know what need they will have of a modern language after they have learned it. In fact, they are quite likely to feel sure they will have none. The teacher consequently has an important need to supply such motivation as will call forth from the mind of the learner the powers which lie there — the desire to know, the will to learn, and first of all, the urge to express himself. The latter we know is in every normal student. The desire to know must be aroused.

P. M. Symonds and D. H. Chase [1] found by experimentation with English lessons that extrinsic motivation by such immediate stimuli as tests and prizes was superior in results to intrinsic motivation by devices intended to interest pupils in improving their language and suggestions of the material gain that might ensue. The experimenters concluded: "The most important single factor in learning as between repetition and types of motivation used in this experiment is the *amount of repetition.* There is strong evidence that motivation from an experienced situation is more effective than motivation from a described situation."

It is certain, however, that interest cannot be built by tests or

[1] "Practice vs. Motivation," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 20 (Jan., 1929), pp. 19–35.

drills that threaten or terrify. To be effective in developing interest and the impulse to work, tests must be fair and there must be many of them so that the student can measure his own progress in short stages.

If interest is to be maintained and a feeling of achievement developed, the course should be blocked out in clearly definite units with specific measurable levels of achievement to be reached in definite periods of time. Such a plan will be a great aid to the teacher by indicating a proper rate of progress, and to the student by establishing levels of achievement at definite periods which he may use as a gauge of his own progress. Such measurement will inspire a feeling of achievement and provide a means of discovering weaknesses in small units of work when they can be readily remedied. There are various ways of recording progress — by laying the classbook on the desk for inspection before and after class, by assigning grades to board work, by a word of praise at times, by assigning more difficult tasks to the pupils showing the better achievement, by getting them to correct translation and other work at the blackboard.

It is of first importance to insure that every student make some progress, no matter how slight and no matter if it necessitates giving help outside class time to the poorest students, for without a consciousness of achievement no interest can survive. Every good athletic coach knows that tasks must gradually be made more difficult and success made possible, indeed assured, if his men are to be kept working. The same needs exist in learning anything. Every task must be a satisfying one in which there is progressive achievement. There will be this satisfaction and progressive achievement only in an atmosphere of friendly competition and pleasurable activity. If the class is a poor one, this atmosphere of friendly competition and pleasurable activity can still be maintained, only the task must be easier and the standards of achievement lower than where the ability level is high.

Another sort of motivation for study of a foreign language is the development of an alert intellectual interest in its subject matter. Many an individual has an absorbing interest in a subject that brings him no material profits. Stamp collecting costs time and money and will in most cases bring the collector nothing but pleasure. In the same way the subject matter of the language course or the development of some project in the language course may prove stimulating to concentrated and pleasurable effort.

Before planning to arouse the interests and ambitions of the student, the teacher must, however, be sure that he himself is properly motivated. What does he find satisfaction in? Not simply in drawing his salary, surely! For such a one is inevitably a poor teacher; he gradually loses what interest he was inspired with through his training; he gets along badly with his students; then wants to change his calling; becomes a poorer teacher; is dissatisfied and unsatisfactory and perhaps — luckily for all concerned — finally loses his job. There must be some personal satisfaction in teaching, as in any other form of work, some belief that the work serves a useful purpose, or the teacher will come to feel useless, then superfluous, and finally lose his self-respect and his hold on life. A teacher has considerable motivation if he likes boys and girls and has a vision of the great good he may accomplish through his work with them. From such a broad vision will come the motivation to that enthusiastic effort without which success is impossible.

Problems for Study

1. Give in logical order the necessary steps in deciding on the set-up of a course in modern language. Which of these do you feel least able to elaborate? Why?

2. If you should visit a superintendent to be considered for a modern-language-teaching position and he should ask you, as he likely would, what method you would propose to use, what answer would you make? Write it out with reasons and references to published writings.

3. What practical measures would you propose to cut down the great student "mortality" in modern language in the school? Write out your answer to this question, with references to writings on the subject, as you might give it to the superintendent to whom you were applying for a position.

4. Describe in writing the influences, experiences, etc., which have given you your desire to teach modern language.

Chapter Four

Assignments, Reviews, Tests

THE ASSIGNMENT

PLANNING and announcing lesson assignments are matters of the greatest importance in the modern-language course. These parts of the teacher's work have been generally neglected in modern-language teaching, probably because of the strength of a tradition that gave little attention to them. As long as the grammar-translation method of teaching was in vogue it was natural merely to assign the next lesson in the grammar text, in whole or in part, for the next class period. After reading became a more important part of language instruction, it again became conventional — as it had been in Latin and Greek — to assign a certain number of pages to be read for the next day's lesson. The assignment was always made in the same old way, and even today this practice is all too often the rule.

There are several reasons why these methods of assigning work are bad. (1) They make for deadly monotony and so kill interest. (2) They treat all members of the class — the strong, the average, and the weak — in the same way. (3) They provide no new problems and no new ways of attacking old ones. (4) There is little motivation of study. (5) If new thought is introduced in the reading, there is no leading up to it, and so apperception cannot function well. (6) They reduce reading, therefore, to barest understanding of the words, leaving the author's thought, ideals, art, quite unintelligible and so unappreciated. (7) They encourage only assimilation of what is in the book and fail to arouse the initiative to weigh, to analyze, or to become in any way productive.

If we wish his language study to become a truly meaningful part of the student's experience, discussion of the assignment

must be made the very heart of the class work. It must lead the pupil to bring live and creative interest to bear on his learning, which must to a great extent be done outside class. The assignment of the next day's lesson should be made so helpful to the student that he will feel he cannot afford to miss it but through it has gained all the information he needs to work effectively. The purpose of this part of the class work should not be to make the assigned task easy but to make it possible and profitable with industry and intelligence. Problems should be so clearly stated and illustrated — the best students may help provide illustration — that even the poorest student can grasp their significance.

It is also important that each discussion of an assignment should end with a summary of the work to be done. This is preferably made by the students, with the teacher giving whatever help is necessary.

The following suggestions for making assignments effective may serve at various times, depending on the objectives in hand and other circumstances.

Mimeographed sheets outlining the course by units may be handed out at the very beginning of the course. From these students may get an overview of the course. References to study material and collateral readings should be indicated. In later stages of the course, additional and more detailed assignment sheets may be handed out whenever a new unit is taken up. These sheets should furnish whatever information will be needed as to problems, study references, and so forth. The use of assignment sheets will save time and will be found more effective than vocal explanations. They will not, however, make unnecessary the daily oral discussion of the preparation for the next hour, although they will make it possible to shorten this considerably. They also save considerable writing on the part of the students.

Along with announcement of the assignment there must be

provision for development of the skills needed in doing the work. In a subject involving as much work for skills as modern language does, it is necessary to anticipate the new skill, or new phases of skill, through explanation by the teacher and illustration by teacher and class, also to illustrate and have illustrated the necessary grammatical and syntactical forms which may be necessary in the writing required.

When reading is being done — and this is the commonest form of learning exercise in the language course — the assignment is of another nature. There will then be one or more kinds of exercises assigned, exercises to discover and to fix meanings and, with advanced pupils, to analyze and summarize thought. Most elementary texts contain exercises of the first kind. If they do not, the teacher may dictate some. At all events, there should be not merely an assignment of additional pages to read but a problem or problems to pique interest, to teach useful techniques, to open the student's eyes to thought which previously he has overlooked or may miss in his reading, to reveal human character, to point out the motivations of men and women, to give him understanding of the social problems touched on in his reading.

In order that the better students may have tasks commensurate with their ability, the assignment must be differentiated for the weak and the strong students. If no other differentiation is made, there should be quantitatively more work assigned for the better students. Different and more difficult kinds of exercises for the strong are, however, feasible. Strong students may, for instance, retell or rewrite in the foreign language the subject matter of their reading, or analyze its thought, while the slower pupils merely get the meanings and express them and their original thought about them in English. In some cases, the assignment may be put in problem form, especially in studying literary texts. Again, individual long-time projects may occupy the extra time of the strong students. Such projects are discussed in Chapter Eleven.

When a large unit of work is to be developed over a period of time, an outline of it should be given out with the first assignment on it, to give perspective, direction, motivation, and challenge to the pupils.

Some sort of pretest should always be provided when a new subject is being introduced. This is necessary in order to work out the proper apperceptive sequence. There is no subject about which the student has no experience whatever. In grammar, vocabulary, and syntax he has his experience with English; in regard to foreign civilization he has his experience with our own civilization; in the study of literature he has the experience of life, of reading, movies, school, and radio. In many cases pretesting may be done merely by oral questioning; in other cases individual written tests are essential to successful development. The connection between the student's previous experience and the material of the new lesson must then be made, and be made by the student, although possibly on the suggestion of the teacher.

Student initiative in proposing assignments is to be welcomed. It will, however, be well for the teacher to do the guiding although he allows the students to make displacements and shifts at times. In making choices of reading material, there is considerable leeway for student initiative. In their study of the class text, which they may well have helped to select, the students may very properly propose what phases of the thought or information involved should be studied particularly. The teacher should be alert to student suggestion along these lines, indeed should court it far more than is generally done.

The question of the extent of assignments is an important one for the teacher. The size of the daily assignment must, of course, be gauged to student ability and time available. The rule should be that the assignment must be long and difficult enough to make every member of the class work up to the limit of his powers. Certainly great and effective workers cannot be reared

on small tasks. More important, however, than the size of the assignment, is the thoroughness with which it is done; so there should be no more assigned than can be done thoroughly.

At what time in the class period the assignment should be made depends on circumstances. In college modern-language classes it is generally, although not always, discussed at the end of the hour. L. J. Brückner [1] found that in 60 per cent of forty-five secondary-school classes a studied discussion of the next day's assignment came first in the period.

From the writings on the subject we may summarize what seems to be the best present thought with respect to the assignment. L. R. Kilzer [2] makes the following suggestions in his volume on *Supervised Study:* The assignment should indicate what, how, and why to study; it should establish apperceptive sequence; should rest on a pretest; should be so clear and complete that the student will know exactly what to do and how to do it; should set up a problem or a challenge; should provide for individual differences in ability and interests; should be given only when students are properly prepared for it; should show evidence of careful preparation on the part of the teacher; should give proper emphasis to the various points; should cover comparatively large units; the method used in giving out the assignment should be varied from time to time; adequate time should be allowed for proper discussion of the assignment; one or more students should be required to repeat the assignment. He also discusses the extended assignment *versus* the enriched assignment; the outline as the assignment; the textbook assignment; the coöperative group assignment; the corrective or remedial assignment; the problem assignment; the detailed *versus* the general assignment. Kilzer also discusses the "when" and the "how much" of the assignment, and adds examples from history and sociology.

[1] "A Survey of the Use Made of the Supervised Study Period," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 33 (May, 1925), pp. 333–345.

[2] *Supervised Study* (Professional and Technical Press, New York; 1931).

E. C. Fontaine [1] makes the following points about the assignment: A definite task or problem must be set; its accomplishment must be properly motivated; the teacher must give the necessary directions and helps for its solution; the teacher should consider the assignment from the viewpoint of large units of study; the assignment must be made only after pupils are adequately prepared to attack it with intelligence; a learning situation must be created; the assignment should be based on a clear comprehension of worthy aims and purposes related to life and its needs.

B. H. Phillips [2] has written a discussion of the history assignment that should be of interest to the modern-language teacher in connection with his attempts to develop a knowledge of the foreign civilization. From Phillips's report we may summarize as follows: Units rather than daily portions of material should be assigned for study; the size of the units varies with circumstances and material, but small units should be the rule in earlier portions of the course; the units should follow the class text to prevent confusion; the overview is important — the teacher sketches this, reviewing also what went before so that the unity of history may be conceived; after the unit is well initiated its development becomes a coöperative venture.[3]

[1] "The Assignment of Lessons," *Journal of the National Education Association*, Vol. 18 (Dec., 1929), pp. 311–312.

[2] "The Assignment of a Large Unit of Work: The Overview," *The Historical Outlook*, Vol. 19 (May, 1928), pp. 211–215. A few further titles on the subject of the assignment may be of interest: W. H. Burton, *The Nature and Direction of Learning* (D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York; 1929); H. C. Morrison, *The Practice of Teaching in the Secondary School*, Chapter XII (University of Chicago Press; 1926); R. M. Tyron, *The Teaching of History in the Junior and Senior High Schools* (Ginn & Co., Boston; 1921).

[3] The following references may be of interest: A. V. Laub, "The Review in Modern Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 1 (Dec., 1916), pp. 92–95; J. Moreno-LaCalle, "The Review Lesson in Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Oct., 1924), pp. 11–24; F. W. Kaufmann, "On Review Exercises," *G.Q.*, Vol. 4 (Jan., 1931), pp. 27–33; Lillian Stroebe, "High Points in Review of German Grammar," *G.Q.*, Vol. 6 (May, 1933), pp. 114–119.

REVIEW

Frequent reviews of the material covered in the language course are necessary because of the nature of our memory. This need for repetition has been demonstrated by the experiments of H. Ebbinghaus.[1]

Recency of impression is an important principle of learning. Class recitations or tests on material previously learned should accordingly be provided and announced so that pupils may have time to refresh their knowledge of the material before it will be needed. This necessity stimulates purposeful reviewing.

G. F. Müller and A. Pilzecker [2] found through extensive experiment that every phenomenon has, after being once presented to the mind, a tendency to recur in consciousness, and moreover, to bring up with it related conceptions — for all of our conceptions tend to be associated in fixed groups — in the same order and form in which they were originally presented to consciousness. Here is the warrant for presenting material to be memorized in the same form repeatedly. Changes from original order and form necessitate relearning rather than mere reviewing. For instance, the alphabet has been learned in its natural order. If now one is asked to repeat it in reverse order, there is an entirely new task for the memory. Paradigms and conjugations may well also be presented in a definite spatial arrangement for first learning and for review.

Müller and Pilzecker went further than Ebbinghaus in their study of the need for repetition and found that in general twelve repetitions or impressions are necessary for permanent retention. These repetitions should be interspaced with other work and with proper intervals of time, and each repetition should be

[1] *Über das Gedächtnis* (Leipzig; 1885). English translation by H A. Rieger and C. E. Bussenius (Columbia University Press, New York; 1913).

[2] " Experimentelle Beiträge zur Lehre vom Gedächtnis," *Zeitschrift für Psychologie*, Vol. 1 (1900), pp. 1–288.

challenging to interest and attention. The new-type reading texts are so constructed as to provide such repetition of words and phrases.

These laws of memory should be observed in conducting the daily recitation, and even in a lecture, as well as in planning a long-time language program. In the daily recitation the phenomena to be retained should be worked over repeatedly and be applied again and again in various ways. The application in concrete sentences and phrases of items to be remembered is important because it creates a wealth of associations that may call up the item. The principles of effective review suggest a pattern for an effective lecture. An outline of contents should be given at the start, then a detailed discussion of the phenomena to be learned, and finally a summary of the chief points covered.

But repetition within the hour is not sufficient. Until the material is firmly established in the mind, there should be repetitions at wider intervals. Twenty-four hours is according to Müller and Pilzecker's findings a satisfactory and for us a convenient period for repeating facts to be memorized. Here lies the warrant for daily review — and incidentally, for the desirability of teaching language five days a week rather than less often, especially in elementary instruction. After original learning, the time between repetitions must be gradually increased. Weekly, and finally less frequent, reviews are then needed if the material is to be permanently retained.

The review may be given various forms to avoid monotony and the consequent killing of interest. For instance, in reviewing we may call for the English cognates of foreign words, or for the English equivalent of picked difficult words, or for translation of every tenth line. Or we may write out true-false statements on the content of the text to be reviewed. Although writing out true-false statements is work for the teacher, these statements may be reused for several years and the scoring requires little effort.

TESTS

Testing is an essential part of any program of review and as such carries its own justification. If tests had no real function in teaching, we might do as is done in some professional schools — test only at the end of the semester to determine the academic standing of pupils and then often find a high per cent of class failures. In secondary school and college, however, our educational objectives and the circumstances of our students do not warrant such a procedure. We must there use tests to create powers and habits, and therefore mastery, step by step. Testing in college and lower schools must be, and elsewhere may be, an indispensable factor in teaching, just as essential as making the assignment, imparting information, or hearing the recitation — which latter is of course really oral testing.

If tests are handled as a matter of course and given frequently enough, if they are well gauged to the ability of the class, if the grades are always handed back to the students or posted, and if the tests increase in difficulty only very slowly and the entire testing program is treated as a sporting event, tests help also to motivate the student's interest and determination to learn. The testing program creates a situation in which a student is made to feel a definite need for certain knowledge and skills, and if tests are frequent enough so that the student becomes accustomed to them and so that a low mark in any one test makes no important difference in his total average, and if they are of the proper difficulty so that he does not fear them, they prove wholesome stimulants to effort and interest.

Tests, however, to be effective teaching devices, must be such common occurrences that no one worries about them and be so planned that the class is adequately prepared on their subject matter, although this does not mean that they may not finally be made as difficult as desired if they are planned in proper sequence. They should therefore become just a part of the daily recitation

and be attended with no more difficulty or strain than the rest of the lesson.

One of the very highest functions of the teacher is to stimulate the learner with wise questions. We may remember that Socrates taught by means of wise questioning alone. The teacher therefore should work to develop originality in devising questions, for it is important to be constantly changing the appeal and the form in which the same sort of data is called for.

Testing pupil ability and understanding before and after a lesson or series of lessons is also the teacher's best means of finding out when his pupils are ready to go on to new material and whether his teaching methods are effective. Results on tests will indicate to him the rate at which the class can progress, and will often suggest the need for revising or readapting teaching methods.

That tests may also serve important administrative functions is illustrated by reports of two studies of their use on the college level.

The University of Wisconsin in 1924 instituted a system of "intermediate knowledge" and "proficiency" examinations. The requirement for the A.B. degree was either passing the former in two, or the latter in one, language. Cheydleur [1] gives a summary of results on these two forms of examination after the first nine administrations of them. He reports that results "show that 1 student saved 5 semesters, 13 saved 52 semesters, and so forth down through 16 students saved 16 semesters, i.e., 92 students cut down their language work by 217 semesters or 868 credits, which could be used as electives if they so desired. . . . A careful study of our data for these three years' experience with the attainment examinations reveals that 662 students saved about 950 semesters, or about 3800 credits of study."

[1] "The Results and Significance of Placement and Attainment Examinations in Foreign Language at the University of Wisconsin: A Pioneer Step in Modern Education," *F.R.*, Vol. 7 (April, 1934), pp. 363–378.

L. C. Seibert and E. R. Goddard [1] reported that objective achievement tests have been given over a period of three years at Goucher College and prove to be as effective a basis as semester marks for promoting students in the language course. There is a high degree of correlation between the two sets of marks. At the beginning of 1928 all four of the American Council Alpha French tests were given to all 192 students. In 1929 only Parts I and II of this test were used; but a dictation and a composition test were added. There were 186 students involved. In 1930 these same tests were used except that part of the Seibert-Wood Aural Comprehension Test was substituted for the dictation.

In modern-language courses practical ability to use the language and not a mere knowledge of forms or rules must be tested. Of course a certain knowledge of forms and rules is necessary to this practical mastery of the language and so must be included in the daily tests, but even here the emphasis must be on ability and skills. The test must show whether the pupil can handle in speaking or in writing the agreement of the past participle with its noun in French or has practical skill in reading material involving vocabulary of a certain difficulty. To know the rules, the paradigms, or the word lists involved is not enough, and the tests must reveal the use values acquired.

There should be a brief daily written review of material already covered to encourage the habit of daily review as a part of the regular homework. The test itself should consume very little class time and should be given at the beginning of the hour before the new lesson is taken up. Five minutes for the daily test and five or less for the teacher to supply the correct answers represent a valuable investment of time at the beginning of each period. In the daily test may well be included a question or two on the day's assignment to provide a measure of the quality of preparation before there has been any class drill on the assignment.

[1] "The Use of Achievement Tests in Sectioning Students," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Feb., 1934), pp. 289–298.

A weekly test is also a necessity, since we know that after initial learning, forgetting sets in after about a week. This weekly test may be given on a fixed day of the week and take the place of the daily review test on that day. It may consume about fifteen minutes and be developed on the same plan as the daily test, including as far as possible the material covered during the period being reviewed. The student will be assigned before the test the task of reviewing both the forms and their application. The same kinds of information will be called for in the weekly as in the daily tests, but they will now be reviewed and tested in a more organized and summarized form. Grammatical forms, for example, that have been learned in isolated instances as they were encountered in reading may now be presented in paradigms or complete conjugations. Again, if word families have been noted so that new members of a family might be recognized and interpreted when met, it may now be a task to collect into families all the related words met on certain pages of the reading. If writing is an objective in the course, a synopsis of material read may now be written. Again, the teacher may translate orally a passage of the reading text into English and ask the class to write a translation of it back into the foreign language. In classes in which speaking is an objective, similar exercises in speaking or in understanding speech may readily be contrived.

In announcing the weekly test the extent of the necessary work should be stated in some detail and the nature of the test to follow should be indicated. It is also well to indicate the best methods of reviewing; e.g., whether to concentrate on the latest unit studied or to make review always cumulative; whether to study aloud or silently; whether to work persistently for a long period of time or in shorter, properly spaced periods; when to start, whether at the earliest or the latest available hour; how much time should be spent. It will be well to have the students themselves consider these matters and decide on study methods in open class discussion.

It is a good plan to give a test at the completion of each unit of instruction or when a reading text has been finished. Most schools also require a test at the end of a term or half term. The plan of covering large units of work with two tests in this way has special value in the case of reading. A reading text should be reread twice, once immediately upon finishing the original reading and once later. The mid-term and final term tests prescribed by the school may very properly be the stimulus for the second rereading of all texts covered in the period. The tests given as the first review of a completed reading unit may well be planned for Mondays so that pupils can do their rereading over the week-end and come fresh to the test from it. Rereading is not hard work but it requires considerable time. Different aspects of the texts may be stressed in the two rereadings to keep interest alive, but both rereadings should be thorough.

Tests should be announced ahead of time whether the student can prepare for them or not. If the test is of a kind for which preparation can be made, its nature and extent should be fully indicated. If it cannot be prepared for, the nature of it should be announced.

The teacher will do well to answer, with the help of the class, all the test questions immediately after the papers are passed in. This exercise constitutes a further review and is a corrective for any who had recalled the material incorrectly. It is not necessary always for the teacher then to correct papers. There seems to be a tendency for teachers to spend large amounts of time in correcting papers at the expense of planning interesting and helpful lessons. This should be avoided. It is possible to devise test exercises that call for a very condensed and easily corrected form of answer, and the best students may be requisitioned to correct the class papers at times. This practice is perfectly justifiable pedagogically as there is much learning in it for the pupils doing the correcting. Pupils may exchange papers and make a short class drill of correcting each other's.

Test papers should, however, always be looked over by the teacher sufficiently to enable him to give them a grade that may apprise the student of his standing. If the papers are not handed back, a list of grades should be posted, a good plan being to arrange them in order of excellence, the best at the top.

Tests should be of proper length for the time available. In a class test it is not necessary — as it is in standardized tests — that even the best should not finish. It is perhaps better that the best can finish it with industry, as the weak would otherwise be too much discouraged. Assigning a numerical value to each question on a scale of a total of 100 for the test is sometimes of value in guiding students as to the relative amounts of time to devote to the various questions.

Where it is especially desired to determine the achievement level of a class or individual in relation to definite standards, the relative difficulty of the material considered for use may be determined by preliminary use with other classes.

Test questions should be so planned that in an average class one quarter of the pupils will score in the lowest quartile; half of the class in the next two quartiles; and the best quarter of the class in the upper quartile. The lowest grade should be a passing one. If, for example, the passing mark is seventy, the lowest 25 per cent of the class should make scores ranging from 70 to 76. However, good teaching may shift the abilities here represented upward; and in advanced classes, where generally only the good students are found, average grades will be higher than in the elementary classes.

For measuring the quality of written composition it is best to use standardized composition scales.

Test questions should be very carefully worked out and clearly stated, so there can be no misunderstanding them. Nothing should be included that has not been learned or that cannot be thought out on the basis of what has been taught.

In preparing effective test questions the teacher will need all

the help he can get from scientific discussion of test construction and from careful examination of whatever published new-type tests are accessible.

Various devices employed in making new-type tests may perhaps be suggestive of ideas for preparing questions on specific phases of subject matter.

Tests should provide for a variety of kinds of exercise. They should call for application of knowledge; statements of theory, rules, and principles; skill in reading or writing; reflective thinking; and whatever other skills have been developed in the course. A variety of forms of test questions will provide for such variety of exercise and for varied approaches to old material. New habits and new points of view may thus be directed toward old problems by the varied use of both essay-type and objective questions and by utilizing many forms of objective questions — multiple-choice, true-false, completion, and the rest, requiring definitions, interpretations, mutations, summaries, and other kinds of exercise.

It is important to include in tests with advanced classes some questions calling for reflective thinking. When pupils are sufficiently advanced to give their answers in the foreign language, this exercise has double value. Nearly all "why" questions call for this type of thinking. The amount of reflective thinking called for in the test should depend not only on the amount of such thinking called for in the class but on the age of the learner. The rule concerning this might be that questions of this type should not be used at all in junior high school, to some extent in senior high school, and more in college.[1]

The test should call for knowledge and skill in the forms in which these were taught and studied; for example, if the questioning in class was in English it should be in English in the test.

[1] Anyone wishing lists of test questions is referred to the College Entrance Examination Board, New York. See also *M.L.J.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1917), pp. 285–301.

If grammatical forms were in class called for in phrases and sentences, this should be the style in the test. If reading was never tested by translation in class, it is not wise to call for translation in the test. If problems on a literary text were not used in class, the problem form would be an unwise innovation in the test.

A vocabulary test may be constructed by arbitrarily selecting words from the word-frequency list, perhaps choosing words at even-number intervals or every fifth or tenth word in the list. A multiple-choice test may then be made from these items, preparing for each one a list of five words, one of them a synonym of the word to be tested. Among the choices may be an antonym, a word resembling the word to be identified but different in meaning, a word resembling a related English word in spelling or sound but not in sense, or a word in an idiom where it has a non-literal meaning.[1] Translations of specific data — numerals, expressions of time, etc. — may be called for in the foreign language or in English, depending on whether direct method or reading method has been used.[2] Scoring may be on the model of standardized tests.

Tests designed to measure ability to read material of a certain vocabulary difficulty may be made from a reading selection unfamiliar to the class that seems to the teacher of approximately the correct level of difficulty. This level can be determined by checking against a frequency list or the glossary of the text the class has used. Synonyms can then be substituted for any words the class could not be expected to know. The idioms in the selection should, of course, be as carefully limited as the vocabulary.

Objective tests are most effective in testing knowledge of grammar. Completion sentences calling for translations to be com-

[1] See Mary E. Peters, "The American Council Vocabulary Tests," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 12 (April, 1927), pp. 24–26.

[2] See also Hawkes-Lindquist-Mann, *The Construction and Use of Achievement Examinations*, pp. 287–337 (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston; 1936).

pleted or for active use of the foreign grammatical forms are very useful, as are questions calling for mere recognition of the correct form among several multiple-choice items. There are various other techniques valuable in grammar tests, examples of which may be found readily in published tests. Among these are matching-word exercises and completion exercises calling for specific grammatical forms and syntactical arrangements, such as the various parts of speech, order of words, forms of agreement, etc. If direct method has been used in teaching, active use of the language forms may be called for. If the reading method has been used, the task may be merely to recognize the correct form among several incorrect forms.

Tests of pronunciation and of aural comprehension are an important part of any well-rounded testing program. A type of pronunciation question adaptable to written answer has been devised by Florence Baker.[1] It consists of French words arranged in two parallel columns. Certain vowels in each word of one column are underlined or italicized; the pupil is asked to indicate the occurrence of a similar sound in the word standing opposite in the other column. For example, the word *ces* is found in the first column and *desirer* opposite. The pupil marks the letter or letters in *desirer* that are pronounced like the *e* of *ces*. W. V. Kaulfers[2] has an excellent test of French vowel pronunciation which might readily be extended to include the pronunciation of the consonants. Directions and one example follow:

> In each line below is a series of five words. All words except one contain the same vowel sound. In the parentheses you are to indicate the symbol for this sound, then in the blank space to the left you are to write the word that does not contain this sound.
>
> Example: _____ ( ) *derrière*, *décédé*, *effort*, *parlerai*, *chez*.

Here *derrière* is the correct answer because it is the only word of the

[1] "Test Forms for Class-Room Material," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Oct., 1928), pp. 27–45.

[2] "Objective Tests and Exercises in French Pronunciation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Dec., 1937), pp. 186–188.

five that does not contain the sound of the phonetic e. The symbol e is written in parenthesis because it is the one sound present in all words except *derrière*. Questions of any of these types may readily be made by the classroom teacher for his own use. Jeanne Greenleaf [1] has described an experiment in which she tested her students' pronunciation by having it recorded by dictaphone and analyzing the results. Josephine Martin [2] tests aural comprehension with a series of thirty graded German questions. The examiner reads each to the class twice. Each question can be answered with one word — in English or the foreign language, as desired.

The usefulness of objective test questions as an aid to thought may be expanded far beyond what has been generally done either in textbooks or tests so far published. So far objective tests in the field of modern language have generally referred largely to matters of fact or specific linguistic skills. Such tests are excellent as far as they go and are perhaps sufficient in the elementary class. As soon, however, as the class is able linguistically, the character of test exercises should be raised to a level where they require thinking, judging, inferring, and not merely memory for facts. Sample questions of this sort are true-false questions such as, "Property of others may justly be destroyed if they have too much"; "Friends are conveniences merely and should be treated as such." These statements involve ethical concepts, call for real thinking, and provoke social thought. Thought-provoking questions need not be confined to ethical matters, however. Questions about purely intellectual matters are entirely possible, for instance, as in the multiple-choice question: "He thought and acted so, because — (1) it was his honest conviction; (2) he had been trained to think that way by his environment; (3) he was egoistic; (4) it was the shortest way

[1] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (April, 1929), pp. 534–537.

[2] "Aural Comprehension Test for German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 2 (March, 1932), pp. 72–75.

to success in his circumstances; (5) his mentality was low; (6) he was asocial; (7) his life experiences had made him anti-social." Such questions challenge careful thinking about material read or discussed in the language class that not only encourages linguistic skills but is an interesting and vital part of training for life.

The idea of making tests that can be scored objectively and then analyzing a wide sampling of pupil performance on these to provide achievement norms is a comparatively recent one. The writer constructed the first such standardized tests for modern languages in 1920.[1] The reasons for the almost immediate popularity of such tests were several. It was shown that teachers' marks were inaccurate; that the traditional examination required much time to score and gave the student the opportunity of giving whatever he had of general knowledge instead of the specific knowledge that should have been tested; that there were not enough items to sample the student's knowledge thoroughly; that the questions were uneven in value and not specific enough; that there was no way of scoring the answers scientifically; and that there could, therefore, be no norms by which to compare class with class and teacher with teacher.

The ease of administering, scoring, and interpreting performance on standardized tests makes these tests of great value to the administrator and the teacher. Henmon[2] lists the special values of these tests as follows: They set standards of accomplishment at various levels; they make possible comparison of achievement in different schools, classes, and under differing methods; they provide a reliable basis of classification and placement of pupils and so secure homogeneity within classes; they provide a means of analyzing effects of age, intelligence, method, curricula, and

[1] Silent Reading Test: French A and B, Spanish A. Comprehension and Grammar Test: French A (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1920).

[2] V. A. C. Henmon, *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1929).

objectives; they furnish a basis for diagnosing defects; and they help define teaching objectives.

The standardized test was and is intended to afford an objective measure that will eliminate personal bias from the measurement of achievement, as a yardstick does, no matter where or by whom it is used. In selecting a standardized test for his use, the teacher must therefore consider carefully the two qualities that have come to be identified in the new testing vernacular as validity and reliability. The term validity refers to the degree to which a test covers worth-while subject matter. Validity is usually gauged by comparison of performance on the test with some other accepted standard of measurement, such as teachers' marks. The reliability of a test is the degree of accuracy with which it measures what it purports to measure. A valid test will include all the most important items, and exclude all non-important items, in the portion of the course to be tested. A reliable test will yield approximately equal scores in its various parts, or its various forms, when taken by different pupils or at different times. Validity is generally expressed in terms of a coefficient of correspondence between pupil performance on the questions of the test and some other accepted gauge of ability, such as teachers' ratings. Reliability is generally indicated by a coefficient of correlation between scores made by the same or different pupils on chance halves of the total number of questions or on various forms of the test, or between the scores made on the whole test by different groups of pupils or by the same group at different times. The teacher's own judgment regarding the success of tests in these two respects and the statistical data often available regarding them will guide in the selection of tests.

Of the voluminous writings on tests and of the available published tests themselves we can mention only the most significant briefly. Our purpose here will be only to give the teacher the aid he may need in choosing standardized tests for his own use.

The first expert study of modern-language tests and the first

actual experiment in testing on a large scale to obtain performance standards were those made by Ben D. Wood in 1925.[1] A second test study was the "Regents Experiment" of June, 1925, which resulted in a report on "New-Type Tests in French, German, Spanish, and Physics." This experiment furnished over thirty-one thousand individual scores of high-school pupils. A third study, a "Second Survey of Modern Language Achievement in the Junior High Schools of New York City," made in 1926, brought the total of individual scores up to fifty thousand. On the basis of the findings from all three of these Wood states that new-type tests are approximately twice as reliable as old-type tests requiring the same time allowance for answering.[2] The findings of these studies have led the College Entrance Examination Board to include new-type questions in its examinations.

Under the supervision of the Study new and better standardized tests were soon created. Two of these series are the American Council Tests and the Columbia Research Bureau Tests,[3] both in wide use today. The Coöperative Test Service, an undertaking sponsored by the American Council on Education and directed by Dr. Wood, is now endeavoring to construct for junior-college and senior-high-school levels ten or more comparable forms of tests in each of various subjects. When all these are ready for modern languages — a number are already published — teachers will have available series of tests that should contribute considerably to the effectiveness of their teaching.

We may here give brief data on the forms and contents of the

[1] This and the two following studies are reported in *New York Experiments with New-Type Modern Language Tests* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1927).

[2] *Ibid.* Compare also F. D. Cheydleur's similar findings in "The Relative Reliability of the Old and New-Type Modern Language Examination," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (May, 1929), pp. 530–550; also the same author's "Results and Significance of the New-Type Modern Language Tests," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (April, 1928), pp. 513–531.

[3] Published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

three outstanding series of tests now purchasable — the American Council,[1] the Columbia Research Bureau,[1] and the Coöperative Test Service [2] tests.

The American Council Alpha French Tests, Forms A and B (by A. Coleman and M. R. Trabue), are each divided into two parts, the first covering vocabulary and grammar, and the second silent reading and composition. The reliability of the whole test is computed as from .92 to .96. There is a validity coefficient of .60 to .70 correlation with teachers' marks. The time required for administering the test is 40 minutes for each part.

The American Council Beta French Tests, Forms A and B (by J. Greenberg and B. D. Wood), are in three parts each, dealing respectively with vocabulary, comprehension, grammar. The coefficient of reliability of the whole test is .97. Validity correlates about .70 with high-school and college-extension marks. The time for administering the test is 90 minutes.

The American Council French Grammar Test (Selection Type), Forms A and B (F. D. Cheydleur), contain each fifty multiple-choice items selected on the basis of frequency of occurrence in thirty-one grammar and composition texts. Reliability of either form is .87 as computed from 9664 cases. Correlation with teachers' marks in 1436 cases gave a coefficient of validity of .55. Eight semesters of college work are covered.

The American Council French Aural Comprehension Test, Forms A, B, C, D, and E (by A. L. Rogers and F. M. Clarke, published by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College), comprise each 80 French questions with five-response multiple-choice items in English. Reliability by semesters 1 to 6 respectively is .79, .84, .77, .82, 175, .82.

The American Council Alpha German Test, Forms A and B (by V. A. C. Henmon, B. Q. Morgan, S. E. Hinz, and C. M.

[1] Published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

[2] Published by Coöperative Test Service of the American Council on Education, Hamilton Hall, Columbia University, New York.

Purin), each contain Part I vocabulary and grammar, Part II silent reading and composition. The reliability of the test is .81 to .94. The validity is .55 to .75, as correlated with teachers' marks. Forty minutes are required for administering each part.

The American Council Beta Spanish Test, Forms A and B (by F. Callcott, R. H. Williams, and Ben D. Wood), each contain sections on vocabulary, comprehension, and grammar. Reliability of the test is .96. Validity is indicated by a .70 correlation with college-extension grades in elementary Spanish. The time required for each form is 90 minutes.

The American Council French Reading Test (by F. D. Cheydleur, V. A. C. Henmon, and M. J. Walker) and the American Council German Reading Test (by E. P. Appelt and V. A. C. Henmon) are designed to test two semesters or more of college study or its equivalent. They will be found useful for placement purposes, for the evaluation of high-school and college credits, and for the determination of ability to read in satisfaction of graduate language requirements.

The Columbia Reseach Bureau German Test, Forms A and B (by C. M. Purin and Ben D. Wood), each contain tests on vocabulary, comprehension, and grammar. The reliability of the test is .96. The validity is about .70 for college students. The degrees of correlation with Regents' examination grades of second, third, and fourth-year students were .72, .76, .72, respectively.

The Columbia Research Bureau Spanish Test, Forms A and B (by F. Callcott and Ben D. Wood), each contain a section on vocabulary, comprehension, and grammar. The reliability of the test is .97. The validity correlation with high-school and college grades on the test is about .70. Time required is 90 minutes for each form.

A series of tests by the Coöperative Test Service of the American Council on Education is now in process of preparation. The list is being increased year by year. These tests call for the usual kinds of skills and information. Tests in this series now available

are a French Test by G. Spaulding and P. Vaillant; a German Test by Miriam Hespelt, E. H. Hespelt, and G. Spaulding; and a Spanish Test by E. H. Hespelt, R. H. Williams, and G. Spaulding. These tests are each designed to test the work of four or more semesters in high school and of at least a year in college. The time required for each is 90 minutes. There are also tests in these three languages designed to test the work of the first year in high school or the first semester in college: French Test, Junior Form, by J. Greenberg and G. Spaulding; German Test, Junior Form, by E. Popper, A. Miller, and L. M. Will; and Spanish Test, Junior Form, by J. Greenberg, R. H. Williams, and G. Spaulding. Each of these tests takes 90 minutes to administer. Shorter forms of the 90-minute tests are designed to test four or more semesters in high school and at least a year in college. These include the French Test, Advanced Form, by G. Spaulding and P. Vaillant; German Test, Advanced Form, by M. Hespelt, E. H. Hespelt, and G. Spaulding; Spanish Test, Advanced Form, by E. H. Hespelt, R. H. Williams, and G. Spaulding. Elementary forms of the tests parallel the other forms, but are especially adapted to beginning classes and can be administered in 40 minutes: French Test, Elementary Form, by J. Greenberg and G. Spaulding; German Test, Elementary Form, by E. Popper, A. Miller, and L. M. Will; Spanish Test, Elementary Form, by J. Greenberg, R. H. Williams, and G. Spaulding.

Pronunciation and aural perception tests are not as yet thoroughly standardized, but there are objective measuring instruments for these skills on the market.[1] Some of these are indicated on page 120. There is also available a "Score Card for

[1] Little weight is laid on aural work in the College Entrance Examination Board examinations, but there has been considerable discussion of aural work in connection with these examinations. See H. G. Doyle, "The Work of the College Entrance Examination Board," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (May, 1927), pp. 564–570. O. J. Robert, "College Entrance Examinations in French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Oct., 1926), pp. 17–24. See also *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (March, 1925), pp. 369–371.

Attainment in Pronunciation" [1] containing every sound used in French to be read by the pupil first in syllables, then in word-groups, and then as a whole. This has been developed by A. G. Bovee.

A considerable number of audition tests have been set up.[2] The most widely known are the Columbia Research Bureau Aural French Test by Seibert and Wood,[3] the American Council French Aural Comprehension Test by Rogers and Clarke,[4] the Lundeberg-Tharp Audition Test in French,[5] and the same authors' Audition Tests in German and in Spanish.[6]

The Henmon French Tests are also available from World Book Company. There are four tests in this group. The technique used is recall and completion; the reliability is .78 to .87; the validity is .50 to .60.

The Public School Publishing Company at Bloomington, Illinois, publishes French Tests by Sammartino and Krause, Forms I and II; Spanish Tests by de la Soledad, Contreras, Broom, and Kaulfers; and American Council on Education

[1] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1925), pp. 15–19.

[2] H. Alpern gives a list of tests, mostly unpublished, in "Problems in Studying the Effects of Oral Training on Reading," *H.P.*, Vol. 16 (Feb., 1934), pp. 34–40.

[3] Forms A and B, four parts each, published by World Book Company.

[4] Forms A, B, C, D, and E. See F. M. Clarke's report on standardization of this test in *H.P.*, Vol. 13 (Feb., 1931), pp. 4–13. It has a reliability of 90. See also W. C. Ferguson, "Aural and Oral-Aural Tests in French," *School*, Vol. 18 (April, 1930), pp. 722–727, on an unstandardized test.

[5] Forms A and B, published privately by J. B. Tharp, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

[6] Both are standardized and available in mimeographed form from Dr. Tharp. See also J. B. Tharp, "The Lundeberg-Tharp Audition-Pronunciation Test in French," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 14 (Jan., 1931), pp. 4–7; also his "A Modern Language Test," *Journal of Higher Education*, Vol. 6 (Feb., 1935), pp. 103–104. The reliability of the tests herein reported are: French .94, German .92, Spanish .91. See also O. K. Lundeberg, "Recent Developments in Audition-Speech Tests," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Dec., 1929), pp. 193–202; and "Testing Achievement in Foreign Language as Speech and Audition." *I.B.*, Vol. 26 (Dec., 1928), pp. 238–243.

German Reading Scales A, B, C, D, by Van Wagenen and Paterson.

The Kansas State Teachers College at Emporia publishes a First Year French Test for Vocabulary and Comprehension, Forms I, II, and III, by Mary Atkinson; and a First Year and Second Year Spanish Test for Vocabulary and Comprehension, Forms I and II, by Mary Harrison.

The Stanford Spanish Tests by Espinosa and Kelley are published by Leland Stanford University. They are reported to be thoroughly standardized.

The Ford-Hicks French Grammar Completion Tests, Forms A, B, C, and D, are published by Dent and Sons, Toronto, Canada.

The Iowa Placement Examinations, French Training (F.T.–1) and Spanish Training (S.T.–1), and Iowa Placement Examinations Series F.A.–1 (revised) are published by the University of Iowa.

Twigg's French Vocabulary Test, Forms A and B, is published by the Harvard University Press.

For other tests now being standardized and to be published see the catalogues and announcements of the publishers mentioned above.

Problems for Study

1. Write out the assignment for a day's work on a short story in a French, German, Spanish, or Italian beginner's book. Write out the questions for the next day's review of this lesson.
2. Make out a test on a week's work in the same book.
3. Make a test covering the first six weeks of work in the same book.
4. Answer the questions of some standardized test in a modern language in the time specified. Describe the test and the method of scoring it.
5. Construct: (*a*) a silent reading test for first- and second-year students in high school; (*b*) a vocabulary test; (*c*) a recognitional grammar test, each test to occupy the person taking it twenty minutes. Append directions for scoring it.

Chapter Five

Pronunciation and Other Oral Work

ALTHOUGH reading is generally accepted as the chief objective of the two-year course in secondary school and college, syllabi and other expressions of professional opinion indicate general agreement that pronunciation must be thoroughly taught and must be taught at the very beginning of the course.

There are several reasons for the importance of this emphasis on pronunciation at the very outset of the language course. (1) Proper pronunciation gives a feeling for the language which encourages confidence and facility in it. (2) It is easier to teach good pronunciation at the beginning of a course than to correct faulty pronunciation later on. (3) There are always in the first- and second-year classes students who go on with their study of the language, among them the future teachers of modern language and a few others who for one reason or another absolutely need to have a good pronunciation.

The importance of correct pronunciation is, moreover, being increasingly recognized. There is now an oral test in the College Entrance Board examinations. There is also a steadily growing opinion that students entering college modern-language courses might well be given oral and aural tests as a basis for segregating them in various sections, rather than segregating them on the basis only of written achievement or performance on prognostic tests as is now frequently done. Recognition of the importance of vocal work is evidenced by the commercial publication of aural tests for class use.

METHODS OF TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

Learning pronunciation means acquiring habits of motor control of the speech organs. There are various activities useful in accomplishing this end.

(1) The student must be motivated by having explained to him the value and pleasure of good pronunciation and by experiencing the pleasure of group singing.

(2) The student must have clearly explained to him the difference between the speech habits of English and the foreign language. He must have clearly demonstrated to him that greater precision, greater activity of the lips, etc., are required in articulating in the foreign language than in English; that the vowels are "pure" vowels, as the French *o* in *chose*, unlike the English o^u sound as in *shore*. Some essential differences between German and English have been indicated by J. Whyte: [1] German is articulated farther to the front of the mouth than English; German vowels and diphthongs are shorter; the consonants are spoken with more breath; initial vowels are more explosive; more effort goes into German articulation; there is greater stress on accented syllables; there is greater change in pitch between accented and unaccented words; Germans speak with more emotion and enunciate more energetically than English-speaking peoples do.

(3) There must be actual demonstration of the production of foreign sounds. Whether or not the teacher uses phonetic texts or phonograph or dictaphone, as only a very small number will, there must be careful analysis of sounds and the ways in which they are produced. The pupils' first attempts to imitate the teacher's pronunciation will be successful only if the teacher knows phonetic principles sufficiently well to give the learner precise directions, in proper terminology, for using his speech organs, and if he encourages and helps him to persist until he has managed to use them correctly. If the pupils do not have printed helps in these matters, the teacher may merely write on the board the analysis of sounds or symbols that have been agreed on to represent them and have the students copy them as a guide for their further practice outside class.

[1] "On the Use of Phonetic Records in the Teaching of German Pronunciation," *G.Q.*, Vol. 4 (Nov., 1931), pp. 170–171.

(4) The student's first practice on any sounds must always be in class under teacher supervision. If he later practices as he listens to the phonograph or dictaphone, that is all to the good; but such practice will not be possible for more than a very small proportion of students. To allow a student to practice pronunciation by himself before good habits have been fixed is subversive.

(5) Once the pupil has been taught to make the proper sounds, the teaching formula will be practice, test, practice, test, always with teacher's corrections, until good pronunciation is fixed. The test may be only reading aloud for the teacher by the individual student, or commercial audition tests may be used. Continued dictation and conversational use of the language by the teacher and oral reading by the student serve to fix good habits of pronunciation.

The first essential of a proper program of teaching pronunciation is of course that the teacher not only have a good pronunciation himself but that he understand the principles and the terms of phonetics. A few of the most practical books giving information on these matters for teachers' use are listed on pages 417–418. If the teacher's circumstances permit him to use phonetic texts, there will be much of this information in them. The introductory discussions found in almost all grammars and beginners' books will also prove helpful in this respect.

DETAILED PLANS FOR TEACHING PRONUNCIATION

Pronunciation should be worked at intensively for the first hours of the course in order to forestall habits of mispronunciation. No reading should be attempted until the student's pronunciation is satisfactory. The student should not even have a textbook until he is familiar with the sounds represented by the foreign words, for he is bound to associate sound with the printed word even though he does not pronounce the words vocally. Incorrect habits may be established by habits of subvocal pronunciation,

and it takes many more repetitions to break an improper habit than to form the proper one originally, as we know from experiments.

The elementary pronunciation work may be distributed over several days, up to ten, but it should be interspersed with other work. During this period the student should not see any text, unless it be one on phonetics. There are ample kinds of work that can supplement pronunciation drill in these early days of the course, before books are used. Realia can be shown, map drawing done, reading about the foreign country done in English, songs can be learned and sung, and the like. Even after reading or other real language work is begun, pronunciation drill should be given at the beginning of each class period for some time.

The first approach to study of a foreign language might well be the describing of the vocal organs by reference to a chart. There may be such a chart in the text used, or one can be sketched on the board. Explain differences in the position of lips and tongue in relation to teeth and mouth in pronunciation of French, German, Spanish, Italian, and English. Draw the vowel triangle on the board. Contrast the "pure" vowels of foreign languages with the diphthongal glide of English vowels.

Illustrate the foreign vowels by producing them. Drill them by having students place their vocal organs right, then keeping them placed rigidly while pronouncing and so avoid the English glide or diphthong. Rest chin on back of hand to insure holding this position.

Illustrate open and close, rounded and non-rounded, front and back, high and medium and low vowels, and the explosive vowel, if any. Drill each of these first in isolation, then in a syllable after an initial consonant; as *me*, *mo*, *mi*, *ma*, etc.

Illustrate production of French, German, Spanish, and Italian consonants, first the voiced and then the voiceless ones. Teach the distinction between these by laying fingers on the Adam's apple and feeling the buzz, or vibration, of the vocal cords when

the voiced consonants, and the absence of it when the voiceless, are pronounced.

Drill voiced and voiceless labial, or lip, consonants first in isolation then in syllables followed by a vowel: *bo*, *be*, *ba*, *bu;* *po*, *pe*, *pa*, *pu;* etc. Then drill the voiced and voiceless vowels alternately; *bo*, *po*, etc.

Illustrate in the same way the production of dental, or tooth, consonants, voiced and voiceless. Drill these dental consonants, voiced and voiceless, in alternation. Give the same illustration and drill for front palatal consonants, voiced and voiceless, and for back palatal consonants. Illustrate the production of throat sounds, if the language being taught contains them, and drill these first in isolation and then in words. Illustrate the production of the nasal sounds — especially important in French — and drill in isolation, and then in syllables. Illustrate the difference between the stops — *p-b*, *t-d*, *k-g*, etc. — and the continuants — *f-v*, *s-z*, *c-j*, *k-g*, etc. — and then drill these in isolation, then in syllables. Illustrate the production of *r* and *l*, and drill these consonants in isolation and in syllables.

Illustrate the explosive vowels, such as occur in German, and drill on these in isolation and in syllables.

For all this early demonstration of sounds it will not do for the teacher merely to say, "Watch how I make the sound." He must know how to analyze the formation of different sounds and have the terminology with which to discuss them in terms of their physical basis. He must be able to identify sounds as formed with the lip, tooth, tongue, front or back palate, or as voiced and voiceless, front, back, high, low, nasal, non-nasal, continuant, stop, open, close, etc. If, for example, the student has difficulty with the German *ich* sound, the teacher will direct him as follows: "This is a front palate sound. The breath strikes on the front palate. The teeth must be just far enough apart so you won't produce an *s* sound," etc. In this way the teacher applies the science of phonetics but does not burden the student

with phonetic theory nor with phonetic texts, except insofar as there may be passages in phonetic transcription in the beginner's book used. Where this is the case, these may be used for early instruction.

After all this preliminary work is done, pronunciation must be practiced in words and in sentences. This part of the work is as important as drilling individual sounds.

It is important for the teacher to remember that there are four steps in the student's achievement of pronunciation: (1) to learn to perceive the foreign sounds; (2) to learn to pronounce them; (3) to associate these sounds with written and oral discourse; (4) to learn sentence stress and rhythm. Without learning the latter, discourse cannot be understood.

Phonetic drills must be short and punctuated with interesting work, such as singing, dictation, correcting dictation, work on new text, inferring meanings with suggestions from teacher, concerted reading, etc.

Rhythmical materials, especially songs, are excellent for pronunciation drill. The plan of learning the sounds of a passage of prose or poetry or a song is excellent. After the sounds have been taught and the song read and reread, singing the song makes doubly excellent phonetic drill, because pleasurable. The words may be written on the board and the sounds carefully associated with the written symbols.

The teacher must not fail to provide for both individual and chorus work in pronunciation. In small sections much attention should be paid to analyzing and correcting individual mispronunciation. If the class is large, the teacher will have to depend largely on directed chorus work. For this he should stand close to the students and not allow any of them to speak too loud. In this way he can detect individual mispronunciation and correct it. Pronunciation may be done sometimes by rows or sections instead of the whole class, for if only a portion of the class speaks, the teacher is better able to detect individual mistakes. Whether

one uses the phonograph or depends on speaking exercises, there is necessary much careful repetition by teacher and class and individual student. Like an orchestra conductor, the teacher must stand close enough to catch mispronunciations on the part of any student. Then he must pause, repeat, and have the student who makes the mistake reproduce the sound correctly.

The entire language class period will for a time, whatever the teaching aims or method, be almost entirely devoted to oral work. But it is important that some homework be especially planned to develop oral skills. For this purpose a manual of conversation may be used and questions on it, in the foreign language, should be given as homework, the answers to be either written or given orally at the next meeting of the class. This work should not in either case consist of translation, but should rather be original phrasing of the ideas and words of the text. Students should be trained to speak aloud all the while they are preparing this or any other oral or written work.

Later on the development of the assignment for the following class period may be made to contribute significantly to the oral exercise of the period. In the ordinary mixed class the teacher may summarize in the foreign language the selection assigned for homework, the pupils' books being closed meanwhile. He will do well to keep up a running conversation with the pupils as he does this to see whether all are understanding, and he will use all the possible devices for conveying the meanings of new words. When he has finished, he should use a barrage of questions to see if all have followed his narrative and to prepare the class for what is coming the next day, thus establishing a readiness to act. After this, if time remains, the selection should be read orally in concert.

Of course we cannot get perfect pronunciation on the part of all students in a class. As in other things, approximately a quarter, or less, will be excellent. The rest will trail away to good, fair, poor, and failing. Finally the teacher will do well to remember

that the class will be imitating his pronunciation throughout the course — at least the ear-minded will — and so will be revising their pronunciation somewhat continually. It is accordingly imperative that the teacher have a good pronunciation himself and be continually mindful of it.

LEARNING EXERCISES

Various types of learning exercise are useful in developing aural and oral ability and should be given thoughtful consideration by every language teacher. One of the most important of these is dictation.

Dictation can be begun soon after reading is started, or earlier, on material which has been read previously, although later on, material the student has not seen previously may be preferable. A dictation exercise should be a whole unit and be interesting. In dictating, the teacher may read the entire passage through first, and then dictate sentence by sentence. The teacher should dictate the sentences at a uniform rate, and if they are long, dictate them phrase by phrase, repeating each phrase once, and once only. After the entire passage has been dictated, it is well to reread it slowly without repetitions to allow students to make what correction they can. There are various ways of correcting dictation exercises. An outstanding student can be placed at the board in the rear to write as dictation proceeds. After the dictation is ended, papers can be exchanged between the students in the front of the room and those in the back, not between next-seat neighbors. The dictation written at the board is now corrected, the students correcting the papers at the same time. Each corrector signs his name below that of the writer of the paper. The teacher revises the corrected papers later.

The special values of dictation work in developing skill in the spoken language are: (1) it motivates intent listening, so giving excellent aural practice; (2) it helps to teach fine distinctions in sounds; (3) it aids good pronunciation by fixing the sound of the

spoken language in the consciousness; (4) it forms a strong bond between the written and the spoken words.

The teacher may have the class read the passage after they have finished writing it to give an opportunity to express the correct pronunciation to which they have just been listening intently.

Another valuable type of oral language exercise is class conversation. An anecdote or story may be assigned in one class period as the topic for discussion in the next. Such themes may be used as the past vacation, a holiday, a party, a game, a concert, a lecture, etc. If "free" conversation on a previously chosen subject is to be a class exercise, the teacher must assign and talk over the subject with the class ahead of time to familiarize them with the terminology necessary to the discussion, the students taking notes on this.

Other valuable oral exercise for pupils is provided through the generous use of the foreign language by the teacher in the classroom: (1) by giving in the foreign language directions that the student must learn to understand if he is to get along; (2) by questioning in the foreign language on the reading done, although the pupils' answers may be given in English; (3) by reading a reasonably short passage and asking the class to translate it in writing; (4) by reading a longer passage, having the students take notes, and later reproduce it completely in English or in the foreign language if this is in keeping with the objectives of the course. The teacher may give all necessary directions; may carry on all questioning and answering regarding grammar, reading, or writing exercises; and write test and examination questions in the foreign language. He will use the foreign language as far as possible in making assignments, developing meanings, or studying words or phrases. Various instructions commonly given in English may well be made to provide practice with the foreign language. All such directions may be given in the foreign language, as the order for an individual or the class to close or open books, stand, be seated, pass papers, pass to the

board or to seats, pronounce, repeat, read, write, sing, etc. All these and more oral exercises may be carried on in any class even though the chief objective of the course is reading. Such exercise supplies a real motivation to understand, since the pupil has a real need of the material under discussion.

If speaking is an objective, the teacher will insist also on pupils' giving replies in the foreign language. The foreign language may well be used by the pupils not only in reciting on a reading assignment, in word study (study of synonyms, antonyms, etymological groups, definitions, etc.), but also in working over a grammar assignment, in giving summaries of what has been read by the teacher, etc. If the fourfold learning is the objective, other oral exercises for the pupil should be developed: (1) telling the content of a reading selection in his own words; (2) imitative oral composition after a model; e.g., a selection read by the teacher, or one read silently by the pupil; (3) in advanced stages of the course free oral composition on a theme which has been discussed by developing the thought and the appropriate vocabulary.

If the class is large, of twenty or more, opportunity for such enriching exercise may be provided for the better pupils, the only ones who will be capable of it, by assigning blackboard exercises to keep the poorer pupils occupied. The poorer half of the class might begin writing their stories on the board as soon as the class exercise is begun. Meantime the superior students can have a first chance at telling the story freely, paraphrasing and using whatever originality they can in vocabulary and phrase. After they have done this, they may be sent to correct the work on the board. While they are doing this, the teacher uses a question-and-answer technique to provide oral drill for those who have not yet recited. Finally he revises the corrections at the board.

In special conversation courses there are, in addition to the techniques just mentioned, other devices and practices necessary. The precise program that can be carried through in the conversation class depends on the size of the class. If it is small, say from

ten to fifteen, the best students can, as they finish speaking, be sent to the board to write a paraphrase of the material of the lesson with as much originality in vocabulary and style as possible. The rest can be kept busy telling each a succeeding portion of the story. As one finishes, he also passes to the board to write the portion he has told orally. For all who are unable to tell a portion independently, the question-and-answer method of discussion will prove helpful. By the time all the material has been covered, the work at the board will be ready for the class to read and correct. The best students can be asked to correct the poorer exercises, the teacher revising their work after they have finished. This work will consume most of the class time, but enough must always be reserved at the end of the period to develop the next assignment.

It is a difficult exercise to give a story in one's own words in a foreign language, but good students can and should be asked to prepare such composition for either oral or written expression. Others should be expected merely to have drilled themselves orally on answers to the assigned questions in anticipation of giving these answers in class recitation later.

True-false statements made by the teacher and answered by individual students about matter in the assignment provide excellent drill in oral language. These are easy to compose and may range from easy to difficult. The following examples may suggest exercises of this type: John's aunt was a young man. He was an orphan since his father, who was still living, did not live in his home city. All apples are red. Columbus discovered India. Every day is Sunday. No two men are exactly alike. Three times three is less than four times one. One should always be impolite in the company of old ladies. The South Pole is colder than the North Pole because it is farther away from the sun.

Completion sentences are equally easy to compose but more difficult to answer. The vocabulary of these must be confined strictly to the assignment: His uncle worked hard, because

——. John feared that ——. The woman would buy the chair, if ——. He would work hard if ——. The citizens revolted when ——. The child began to cry when ——. The wronged man hated him so thoroughly that ——. The priest did not doubt that ——. The mother worked hard in order that ——. He stopped in his tracks, for ——. The hero failed in his ambition insofar as ——. The police did not know whether ——.

Supplying sentences or phrases involves very definite thought processes. To supply a subordinate clause to complete the idea "John knew that" is not a mere matter of memory, for this indirect discourse may require the subjunctive, as it does in German. The fact needed may be in the text, but it may have been stated directly there and therefore in the indicative. Our act of thought is: "I am stating this indirectly. Indirect discourse requires the subjunctive in German. Therefore I must use the subjunctive." The picking of the precise form may then be a matter of memory purely.

A very difficult but valuable exercise is the giving of definitions in a foreign language. This is an exceedingly stimulating exercise if the teacher keeps the terms to be defined within the range of the students' ability. Some words express ideas obviously easier of definition than others. Words like *week*, *month*, *knee*, are comparatively easy; *chair*, *blackboard*, *crayon*, are harder; while words like *money*, *faith*, *disbelief*, are very hard. A *week*, for instance, may be simply defined as a period of time consisting of seven days. A *chair* is a piece of furniture having four braced legs, a top on which one sits, and a back against which one can lean. *Money* is a medium of exchange coined in small round pieces of metal, or a piece of paper containing a promise to pay.

The old rule of logic for making a definition will be helpful in this connection. The species of the thing to be defined will first be identified, then the genus, and then the distinguishing characteristics of the individual thing under consideration. Suppose, for example, we wish to define cap. Hat is the species.

The genus is headwear. The difference between a cap and other headwear is that a cap has no brim and is generally pulled down over the head somewhat.

The exercise in making definitions not only affords excellent training in thinking but can be made interesting and stimulating and as easy or as difficult as is desirable. Properly developed, it may be made one of the very best means for analytical and constructive thought, even though the definitions given are very simple ones.

We can invert this definition exercise by naming the attributes of a thing and asking the class to infer the thing. A bear, for example, may be described to the class in some such way as the following: It is a large four-footed animal, having fur and claws; it is a meat-eater, climbs trees, and is dangerous to man. The class then guesses what has been described. Or such a description as the following may be given them: It is a large, oblong piece of furniture; has four legs and a back; is generally covered with cloth or leather; is used to sit on. The answer is *sofa*. Or: This is a fibrous, hard material which can be split with an ax or sawed with a saw. When it is growing it is greener and softer than after it is dead. It has a thousand uses in everyday life. There is some of it in this room. *Wood* is the answer.

A definition-completion test, perhaps in multiple-choice form, is a possible variant of the definition exercise. A question may be asked by the teacher in some such form as the following: "Which of the following five expresses the same idea as *eau congelée, très froide et solide: glacis, eau chaude, glacé, glace, glacial?*"

WIDE VARIETY OF METHODS DESCRIBED IN PROFESSIONAL WRITINGS

Much interest in teaching pronunciation is evident among foreign-language teachers, no matter what their basic teaching philosophy or method. The consequence is that the literature on the subject represents a wide variety of points of view and suggests

a great diversity of method. Perhaps we shall be most helpful if we reproduce here the outstanding specific suggestions made in these articles, most of which are short and touch on teaching pronunciation in an eminently practical way.

Some writers like L. C. Baker[1] and C. F. Sparkman[2] lay stress on the value of good pronunciation and give many practical hints for the teacher. W. L. Groff,[3] while endorsing the use of phonetic spelling, states that this by itself is not sufficient to insure good pronunciation. C. C. Gulette[4] states that basing pronunciation on an understanding of the physical movements involved and providing for ample practice under supervision of the teacher brings better results than laboratory practice in imitation of phonographic records without teacher direction. F. M. Baker[5] supplies a chart of French pronunciation and a useful analysis of the exact nature of the errors in pronunciation. R. P. Jameson[6] states as his summary that the example of the good pronunciation of an adequately trained teacher is probably the best means to produce good pronunciation in the student. A. H. Schutz[7] recommends group vocalization and dictation written on the blackboard, using whole sentences dictated at a normal rate of speed. J. Vidon-Varney[8] makes the pupil see and hear the sound and the symbol at the same time. P. H. Churchman lays stress on these two approaches likewise, the phonetic and the

[1] "A Plea for Phonetics," *W.B.*, No. 66 (Oct., 1928), pp. 4–5.

[2] "The Value of Phonetics in Teaching a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (Jan., 1926), pp. 227–235.

[3] "Phonetic Hints for the Modern Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (May, 1929), pp. 620–625.

[4] "Ear-Training in the Teaching of Pronunciation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Jan., 1932), pp. 334–336.

[5] "Pronunciation Analysis," *F.R.*, Vol. 1 (March, 1928), pp. 37–43.

[6] "The Teaching of French Pronunciation — How Much Phonetics?" *I.B.*, Vol. 27 (June, 1930), pp. 224–226.

[7] "Comments on Method in Language Instruction," *F.R.*, Vol. 4 (Feb., 1931), pp. 282–284.

[8] "Improving French Pronunciation," *Educa.*, Vol. 53 (Sept., 1934), pp. 23–29.

orthographic, and gives specific suggestions for realizing them. In another article he urges that at the beginning of the course ample phonetic instruction must be given with much oral work, and that at first there must not be much practice outside class. He explains sounds scientifically and uses the phonetic alphabet. In a third article he proposes to amend the phonetic alphabet for purposes of teaching French.[1] E. McGonigle [2] has a pronunciation test in matching sounds. The direction to the student is: "Underline the words which contain the same sound as the italicized letter, for instance — *ce*: *cent*, *car*, *quand*, *ici*, *cahier*, *garçon*." J. Tamborra [3] develops the thesis that unguided imitation of the teacher's pronunciation will not produce good pronunciation.

German pronunciation is taught by L. Naquid [4] by having students compile a working alphabet of German names. C. M. Purin [5] gives numerous useful suggestions on the teaching of the most difficult German sounds. J. Whyte [6] gives numerous time-saving devices for teaching German pronunciation by contrasting English and German sounds. G. Nordmeyer [7] offers a simplified phonetic alphabet for German. E. Spanhoofd [8] gives many practical suggestions for classroom practice, as does J. Hess.[9]

[1] "The Real Purpose of Phonetic Transcription," *F.R.*, Vol. 1 (Jan., 1928), pp. 38–51; "Getting the Proper Phonetic Start," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Feb., 1929), pp. 339–348; "The International Phonetic Alphabet," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Oct., 1928), pp. 46–56.

[2] "New-Type French Tests," *School*, Vol. 17 (April, 1929), pp. 798–801.

[3] "The What, When, and Why of Phonetics in Learning French Pronunciation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (April, 1935), pp. 511–518.

[4] "Introducing German Pronunciation through a Cultural Alphabet," *H.P.*, Vol. 13 (May, 1931), pp. 62–63.

[5] "German Pronunciation," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1930), pp. 214–215.

[6] "On Teaching German Pronunciation," *G.Q.*, Vol. 2 (Nov., 1929), pp. 137–150.

[7] "A Simplified Phonetic Alphabet for German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1936), pp. 165–170.

[8] "The Practical Study of Phonetics," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 19 (Nov. and Dec., 1918), pp. 256–259, 299–304.

[9] "Practical Phonetics for German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 1 (Jan., 1917), pp. 119–124.

In a discussion of Spanish pronunciation H. J. Russell [1] gives an introduction to the physiology of sounds. W. V. Kaulfers [2] teaches pronunciation in terms of the basic phonetic groups of French or Spanish. After the teacher pronounces a sound several times, he writes it — or words containing it — on the blackboard. Next, he dictates words containing the sounds that have been studied. D. M. Kress stresses differences between English and Spanish pronunciation through use of cognates.[3]

L. MacClintock [4] states that while native French teachers do not object to our use of phonetics they do object to our use of phonetic transcription, which distorts the appearance of the printed language. They themselves, according to his questionnaire returns, employ phonetics drill in their teaching of French but avoid the use of phonetic transcription.

H. D. Austin [5] gives teaching hints on the pronunciation of Italian.

MECHANICAL AIDS TO CORRECT PRONUNCIATION

C. H. Mercer was a pioneer in the use of radio in modern-language instruction.[6] Today considerable numbers of modern-language students, in and outside school, are learning French, German, Spanish, and Italian wholly or partly by radio.

The National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, with the writer as its president at the time, in 1931 appointed a com-

[1] "Some Practical Phonetic Suggestions for Teachers of Romance Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Feb., 1933), pp. 349–354.

[2] "An Inductive Method of Teaching Pronunciation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (May, 1929), pp. 610–619.

[3] "The Mastery of Spanish Pronunciation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Dec., 1937), pp. 206–208.

[4] "Do Native Teachers Object to the Use of Phonetics in Our Teaching?" *F.R.*, Vol. 4 (Feb., 1931), pp. 322–328.

[5] "Notes on Teaching Italian Pronunciation," *It.*, Vol. 8 (Sept., 1931), pp. 79–82.

[6] "The Technique of Foreign Language Broadcasting," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Nov., 1931), pp. 102–114.

mittee on radio instruction. *The Modern Language Journal*, the official organ of the federation, has today a regular department on radio under the direction of E. F. Engel. Modern-language instruction as broadcast by radio from Ohio State University is reported by W. S. Hendrix [1] and D. A. Cabara.[2] Among other universities prominent in broadcasting modern-language instruction are the University of Wisconsin,[3] Teachers College of Columbia University, New York University, and the University of Wyoming. Modern-language teachers have not been left behind in the great general movement for radio instruction, a movement interestingly reported by L. Tyson.[4]

W. L. Schwartz [5] gives a report of the value of the Linguaphone Method for French. G. O. Russell [6] lists the Victor Orthophonic records for French which he considered the best available in 1932. E. G. Kunze [7] describes various systems of phonograph instruction and gives titles, prices, editors, etc. Thomas Beach [8] reports experiments in teaching in Europe with phonograph, radio, talking pictures, etc. He also gives lists of records with addresses of the manufacturers. C. H. Mercer [9] discusses the value of the

[1] "Foreign Language Broadcasting in the United States," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Nov., 1932), pp. 91–96.

[2] "Teaching Spanish by Radio," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Dec., 1937), pp. 189–200; W. Meiden, "A Technique of Radio French Instruction," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pp. 115–125.

[3] D. L. Bolinger, "Spanish on the Air in Wisconsin," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Jan., 1934), pp. 217–221.

[4] *Education Tunes In — A Study in Radio Broadcasting* (American Association for Adult Education, 60 East Forty-second Street, New York; 1930).

[5] "The Linguaphone French Course," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 17 (Nov., 1933), pp. 140–141.

[6] "The Weeks-Allard Victor French Language Records," *F.R.*, Vol. 5 (March, 1932), pp. 372–375.

[7] "The Use of the Phonograph in Language Work," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (April, 1929), pp. 538–549.

[8] *Modern Language Teaching and Learning with Gramophone and Radio* (Heffer, Cambridge; 1931).

[9] "Radio and Aural Comprehension," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Feb., 1931), pp. 325–326; also *op. cit.*

radio as an aid to comprehension of the foreign language and in promoting international understanding. In another article he lists the educational devices used in broadcasting as (1) auditory control; (2) visual control, provided for by use of a manual along with the lessons; (3) written control, developed by the asking of questions to be answered in writing; (4) dialogues; and (5) talks in an international language, Esperanto.

M. Françon [1] describes the use of the phonograph in classroom teaching of French, as does C. C. Clarke.[2] A. L. Bond [3] shows how the phonograph may be used along with a manual in phonetic script. T. Boldyreff [4] advocates following the text rather than a phonetic transcription while listening to records. She also gives lists of records with information essential for purchasing them. In a second article she describes experiments with Spanish records in the classroom in which the students write down what they heard. E. H. Schneck [5] describes the difficulties experienced with her phonetics laboratory. R. H. Waltz [6] gives information about the best records available and instructions to students using them. He also suggests that schools wishing to establish language laboratories consult with a statistician, give students preliminary tests, group students on the basis of these tests, state their aims clearly, and choose capable teachers.

[1] "Travaux pratiques de prononciation Française," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Jan., 1937), pp. 231–234.

[2] "The Phonograph in Modern Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 3 (Dec., 1918), pp. 116–122.

[3] "The Value of Phonetic Script and Records in Teaching French," *I.B.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1924), pp. 308–311.

[4] "Phonograph vs. Phonetics," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (January, 1929), pp. 205–213; "Training Linguistic Thought — Some Experiments with Spanish Phonograph Records," *H.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1929), pp. 591–600.

[5] "Practical Difficulties in the Use of Phonetics Laboratory," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Oct., 1935), pp. 30–32.

[6] "The Laboratory as an Aid to Modern Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Oct., 1930), pp. 27–29; "Language Laboratory Administration," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Dec., 1931), pp. 217–227.

R. C. Monroe [1] discusses the use of a phonetics laboratory and of radio. J. J. Findlay [2] shows the great service of the phonograph in developing good pronunciation.

In a second article Dr. Waltz discusses the dictaphone as a teaching device. He states that minimum laboratory equipment is one dictating machine, a shaver, a transcriber, a table with listening equipment, and a number of cylinders. This will suffice for forty students. Student technique is to listen while following the text in a book, and then to repeat the sentence or give the answer. L. M. Levin [3] prefers phonograph records to the dictaphone, for there is commonly too much noise in the laboratory for the use of the dictaphone unless there are sufficient soundproof booths for the students.

J. H. Greenleaf [4] reports dictaphone experiments with 1425 college students. As the student read into the dictaphone, the teacher recorded his pronunciation in phonetic script. The number of errors determined the student's grade, and he was then handed the list of his errors for correction.

E. P. Appelt [5] likewise advocates the phonograph as an aid in German, while M. F. Schmitz [6] shows how to arrange a radio hour for a class in an entertaining and profitable way. J. Whyte [7] uses a German and an English record of identical passages to illus-

[1] "Method in Language Instruction," *F.R.*, Vol. 4 (Feb., 1931), pp. 271–281; also, "Radio Instruction in Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Dec., 1931), pp. 212–216.

[2] "Why Learn French — and How?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (March, 1931), pp. 414–417.

[3] "More anent the Phonetic Laboratory," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (March, 1931), pp. 427–431.

[4] "French Pronunciation Tests," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (April, 1929), pp. 534–537.

[5] "Das Grammophon im Sprachunterricht," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1928), pp. 166–169.

[6] "Wir veranstalten ein Deutsches Rundfunkprogramm," *G.Q.*, Vol. 8 (Jan., 1935), pp. 27–36.

[7] *Op. cit.*

trate essential differences between the languages. He has his students make records of a selection of which there is a professional record and then compare the two.

If radio broadcasting is to become significant in the field of language instruction, as it seems it should, modern-language departments must demand their fair share of financial appropriations for radio equipment.[1] Other departments of the schools and colleges have long been allowed to take too large a share of these appropriations and of those for other mechanical equipment. Teachers will do well to acquaint themselves with available phonograph records and with the usefulness of the dictaphone in language study and to urge appropriations for their use. If there is a real need and an insistent demand for a modest amount of such equipment, it will probably be forthcoming.

Problems for Study

1. Write out for your supervising superior the procedure in pronunciation you propose to use in your beginners' class, supposing a two-year senior-high-school modern-language course with guaranteed reading ability as the chief objective.
2. What short treatise on foreign-language sounds would you own, know thoroughly, and be able to use fluently in giving directions how to produce the sounds? Give the bibliographical data to identify it. Which chart of vowel and consonant sounds do you know similarly? Give bibliographical data on it.
3. To what extent would you use phonetic tests and phonetic notation in a course?
4. To what extent would you make use of phonograph and radio in a course?
5. If you had free choice in a four-year senior-high-school course, how would you treat pronunciation?
6. To what extent would you employ dictation in the two-year course described above, and what method of correcting it would you prefer? Why?

[1] L. C. Keating, "Mechanical Inventions in Modern Language Teaching," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 44 (Nov., 1936), pp. 677–679.

Chapter Six

Teaching Grammar

ALTHOUGH there has been a great movement of theory away from grammar teaching for nearly forty years and this movement is taking on new impetus today, grammar still looms large in modern-language teaching.

Viëtor [1] and his fellow-reformers in the eighties started a revolt in Germany against grammar and translation in favor of "living" language which, overshooting the mark as reformers will, they thought of chiefly as oral language. Their agitation bore fruit and the grammar-translation method was finally cast overboard, at least by all who were capable of employing the new method. The eclectic method, with more stress on oral work and reading, took its place.

If, however, we examine the syllabi and outlines of modern-language courses given in secondary schools today, we are surprised and shocked to see that the emphasis is still on grammar. Perhaps the greatest change since the days before Vietor is that grammar is now developed through oral and written use of the language rather than as a distinct science presented as the foundation of the language course.

PRESENT VIEW ABOUT THE FUNCTION OF GRAMMAR

The changing character of textbooks is evidence of a change in comparative emphasis in language teaching. Formerly great bulky grammars sold well, but today grammars are becoming smaller and smaller. The reading text and not the grammar book is now the student's main purchase in the two-year course, and the quantity of reading material between its covers is gradually increasing with a consequent decrease in attention to grammar and drill material.

[1] W. Viëtor, *Der Sprachunterricht musz umkehren* (Reisland, Leipzig; 1880).

The courses of study issued by our largest cities and by states in all parts of the country for all four of the languages commonly taught provide that in the first year a beginner's book should be completed except for a few of the more difficult matters of grammar. The lessons of this book are typically short readings, each illustrating a grammatical principle, which is further explained in the accompanying text. Along with this basic textbook a reader is often used, or a few short stories or a novelette, amounting altogether to perhaps a hundred pages.

In the second year the program usually provides for review of the first year's grammar and study of grammatical subjects not covered the first year. Unfortunately this grammar review is generally done *en bloc* the first weeks or months instead of being distributed over the year. Then follows a period of reading about two hundred pages in various texts.

This typical two-year course is started in the ninth, tenth, or eleventh grade, when pupils are really interested in anything but grammar. Pupils fourteen to eighteen years old have no love for abstract rules. They want life and movement and emotion. As one commentator says, there is a "repugnance of the mind to rules." [1] Such distaste for grammar the youthful mind shows. Nor does the teacher usually show any great enthusiasm for it. It is harder a good deal to drill, drill, drill, on grammatical forms than to read inspiring or entertaining works.

The great disadvantages of grammar as a subject of study are its monotonousness, the lack of any vital pupil interest in it, the fact that it concerns an extremely narrow range of phenomena entirely disconnected from real life, and its ineffectiveness in developing facility in the language. But still many outstanding modern-language teachers are afraid that their courses lack backbone if grammar is slighted; so it remains the chief concern of many courses.

[1] E. L. Thorndike, "On Learning of Rules in the Study of a Foreign Language," *G.Q.*, Vol. 4 (May, 1931), pp. 89–95.

Testing programs have shown, however, that in spite of all this attention even the pupil's command of grammatical principles, as well as his general language ability, is far from satisfactory. Wood's [1] extensive testing projects in New York City with American Council Alpha and Beta Tests, Columbia Research Test, American Council French Grammar Test, Selection Type, showed that the lower 50 per cent of junior- and senior-high-school pupils tested have actually a small functional knowledge of grammar, as well as very limited vocabulary and extremely limited reading ability.

Why then this enslavement to grammar? There must be other reasons besides mere school conservatism for the addiction that we see here. One part of the answer is the College Entrance Examination Board, which still sets the grammatical hurdles that the teacher in the East must meet. Other important reasons for the survival of grammar are the unchanging authority of syllabi and types of examinations, the inertia of textbook-makers, conservatism in high places, a lack of training on the part of teachers, and lack of reading materials for a broader program.

VALUE OF GRAMMAR IN A READING PROGRAM

Grammar study, without doubt, has certain important contributions to make to the general development of the student. Grammar drill may contribute to such general educational objectives as the development of sustained habits of work, will power, and close thinking. Grammar study will also contribute more specifically to language learning by encouraging thorough analysis of reading material and making possible accurate interpretation of the word forms in the text. The problem of language teaching is to conserve these advantages without increasing the serious dangers that attend overemphasis on grammar study.

[1] Cf. Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, pp. 123–124 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

We know that 85 per cent of the students beginning foreign-language study take only two years or less of it. In these two years the only kind of positive achievement that can be attained is that in reading ability, for satisfying achievement in speaking cannot be realized, or in mastery of grammar. The soundness and value of reading as the basis for attaining important educational objectives are generally conceded. A new emphasis on reading is consequently needed in the language program and a new appraisal of the value of grammar study in this program.

Recognitional and functional grammar are two distinctly different things. Recognitional grammar is that by which a pupil may recognize the forms he reads or hears. A certain amount of such knowledge is essential to accurate understanding of the spoken or written language. Functional grammar is the knowledge that enables him to use the forms in composing oral or written sentences. The two are poles apart. It is the same distinction as that between passive and active vocabulary. We need only recognitional grammar in the two-year course in secondary school and in all but strong sections in college. In the third and fourth years we may need to work for functional grammar. A. McCoon [1] and O. T. Robert [2] writing of French, and C. F. Sparkman,[3] of Spanish, advocate teaching only recognition grammar for the first two years.

J. B. Tharp and E. Murray report an experiment in reading French without any instruction in formal grammar.[4] The number of students involved is not given, but there were two or more sections whose work was concentrated on reading and two or

[1] "Grammar and Extensive Reading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Oct., 1931), pp. 14–21.

[2] "The Teaching of French Grammar and the Teaching of the French Language," *F.R.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1928), pp. 27–37.

[3] "Grammar for the Reading Approach," *H.*, Vol. 19 (Oct., 1936), pp. 353–360.

[4] "Grammarless Reading of Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Feb., 1928), pp. 385–390.

more in which grammar was taught. In the reading sections, actual reading was begun after six lessons in Bond's *Introduction to the Study of French*. There was daily sight translation and idiom learning, and students were given lists of irregular verb forms. A minimum of one hundred pages of outside reading was required the first semester. On standardized tests these reading sections made higher scores than the grammar sections as follows — vocabulary 20 to 25 per cent, reading 26 to 40 per cent — although their scores on grammar questions were only 16 to 40 per cent of the scores made by the grammar classes. The authors conclude that any more than an elementary knowledge of recognitional grammar is not necessary in learning to read a foreign language.

J. C. Greenup and D. Segel experimented with two groups of junior-college students for a semester.[1] The control group was taught Spanish by a conventional method, which included written work, oral reading, and grammar drill. The experimental group was given no formal grammar, no composition, no drill, but generous practice in hearing and reading Spanish. Testing with Columbia Research Bureau tests showed the experimental group superior in vocabulary and reading ability. In grammar the control group proved superior.

INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE METHODS OF TEACHING

Where functional grammar is an objective, there is need to consider thoughtfully the proper method of teaching. The deductive and inductive methods are the two basic alternatives.

The inductive method of teaching the essential unifying principles and rules of a language has come to be generally recommended to supplant the old memoriter methods of learning language forms and principles. The belief is now commonly held that the number of rules, principles, and forms to be learned

[1] "An Experimental Study of the Relation between Method and Outcomes in Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Dec., 1929), pp. 208–212.

should be much more restricted than it was formerly and that these should be discovered and learned by a process of induction. Numerous examples of significant phenomena are to be observed by pupils, the principles governing them derived and then the forms and rules fixed by extensive drill practice. Appraisal of this general plan of teaching may be made in the light of Dewey's analysis of problem-solving, which is accepted as the essence of the learning situation: [1]

> Upon examination, each instance [of reflective thought] reveals, more or less clearly, five logically distinct steps: (1) a felt difficulty; (2) its location and definition; (3) suggestion of possible solution; (4) development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion; (5) further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection; that is, the conclusion of belief or disbelief.

It may be noted that, in practice, steps 1 and 2 fuse into one, as do also 3 and 4. We have then reduced the process to three steps: (1) definition of the problem and its delimitation, (2) statement of hypotheses as to a conclusion and the testing out of these hypotheses until one only remains, the conclusion arrived at, and (3) application or additional testing of this conclusion. These steps interpreted into practice in teaching grammar suggest giving many examples of any form to be taught and then attempting to find the underlying rule or principle.

The deductive method means giving the learner the rule, the abstraction, first and then asking him to apply it in sentences, a method that can be developed in either the vernacular or the foreign language. It is a scientific procedure, found applicable in any branch of study.

The inductive method comprises first hearing or seeing, and then using, until familiar, concrete examples of the forms to be learned, and finally finding or being shown the rules that govern them. Before the student is made conscious of the generalized principle, the examples have become so ingrained in his

[1] *How We Think*, p. 72 (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1910).

consciousness through his hearing, speaking, seeing, and writing them that they are automatically employed by him. Then and only then will he be helped to discover the grammatical principle governing their use. There should in the foreign-language class be no dead memorizing of rules to be applied in written exercises, but only inductive learning developed through hearing and speaking. Such learning its first proponents called "living grammar for use in speaking."

Induction does not necessarily mean direct-method learning, although the originators of this method of teaching a foreign grammar did use the direct-method approach.

F. D. Cheydleur [1] studied inductive and deductive learning of grammar, and called them respectively functional and theoretical study. Among his findings were the following: Habituation results more effectively from functional study than from theoretical. Students required two and a half times more time to recall theoretical knowledge than functional, and correctors required twelve times as much time to correct questions testing it. Functional grammar contributes more directly than theoretical to mastery of a language. Statistical results point to the probability that theoretical or formal grammar is more valuable as a form of discipline in abstract thinking than as an aid in acquiring the practical mastery of a language. Cheydleur concludes that teachers should stress functional rather than formal grammar in language study.

P. Hagboldt [2] recommends the inductive method and lists the following steps in inductive reasoning: observation, comparison, abstraction, generalization. The student finds the rule by observing and comparing the forms, and is helped to do this by

[1] "The Relationship between Functional and Theoretical Grammar: An Experiment Carried on with the American Council French Grammar Test — Selection Type — in Seven State Institutions," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Jan., 1932), pp. 310–333.

[2] "Presenting Grammar Inductively," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (March, 1928), pp. 440–445.

thoughtful questioning by the teacher. C. B. Schomaker [1] also endorses the inductive approach and J. H. Nunemaker [2] develops the method to the point where his students evolve rules and develop them into a system as the basis for an elementary grammar text which they write themselves.

DRILL DEVICES

Drill is an important part of teaching grammar. The Symonds and Chase experiment reported in Chapter Three [3] demonstrated this fact, and the unanimous opinion of experimenters and classroom teachers supports it. L. Stroebe [4] and L. Will [5] have demonstrated the principle in their reports of grammar lessons. Both use an inductive approach and then drill on application of the rule in original sentences. The value of this method was tested and proved experimentally by C. A. Simmons.[6] Many drill devices were developed by advocates of the reform and the direct methods; for instance, the "sliding" synopsis and paradigm.

The conjugation of a verb may well be summarized in a sliding synopsis, in which the first person singular of the present tense is given, the second singular of the past (imperfect), the third singular of the perfect, the first plural of the past anterior (pluperfect), the second plural of the future. Future perfect, being of little importance for our students, is disregarded. Such a synopsis can be done with a reflexive verb and in the passive as well as the active voice. It affords an excellent drill on verb forms.

[1] "The Function of Grammar in the Attainment of Reading Knowledge," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 22 (Oct., 1930), pp. 164–167.

[2] "The Teaching of Spanish Grammar," *H.*, Vol. 12 (Feb., 1929), pp. 79–82.

[3] Page 92.

[4] "How to Plan a Grammar Lesson," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 21 (Jan., 1929), pp. 10–15.

[5] "A Grammar Lesson with Review and Drill," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (March, 1932), pp. 504–511.

[6] "The Mental Processes Involved in Learning a Foreign Language," *Modern Languages*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1930), pp. 37–42.

The sliding paradigm is a similar useful drill exercise for personal pronouns and possessive adjectives. It may be illustrated by the outline: I have my book, thou hast thy book, he has his book, she has her book, it has its book, and so on through the persons of the plural. Adjectives may be drilled by inserting modifiers in this exercise, as: I have my good book, etc. This type of drill is especially necessary in German. The forms of the personal pronouns, both conjunctive and disjunctive, can be summarized in French by the same method. I have given it to thee, him, her, it, you, them, the order in which they stand being drilled at the same time. Cases of the relative pronoun may be drilled in a similar way: I have the book which was lost, of which you spoke, which you want, etc.

By such devices we can improvise drills for any part of speech, for word and sentence order, for indicative, imperative, conditional, or subjunctive. Word order in the sentence can, for instance, be drilled if the teacher gives a principal clause, "The book is easy but I think that ——," and the student supplies a proper subordinate clause, as, "it is not reliable." If the teacher gives an interrogative sentence: "Why did John not bring his book?" the student supplies the answer: "Because he forgot it." Or in learning German prepositions, which are troublesome, one student may put the list of dative prepositions on the board and each student uses one in a phrase, the teacher pointing to it on the board as the phrase containing it is given. With a little effort such exercises and others can be improvised by the teacher to serve any need.

H. E. Palmer [1] has devised a system of employing pattern forms for drill purposes. A pattern sentence, such as "John visits," may be changed in a multitude of ways, as by the addition or substitution of a word or words; by changing the declarative form to an interrogative, "Does John visit?"; by changing the mode to im-

[1] *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages* (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1917).

perative, "John, visit," or to the conditional, "If John visits"; or the active voice to the passive, "John is visited"; or by changing the tense. The following are illustrations of some simple patterns: John visits his aunt often when he comes. The man is visiting his uncle now as we are speaking. My cousin visited his cousin frequently during his sojourn here. The man from New York has visited his friend daily during his vacation. A man with filial love will visit his mother faithfully and love her devotedly.

It will be noted that by substitutions or additions of nouns, modifiers, verbs, adverbs of various kinds, etc., we can make an almost infinite number of sentences from a very few words. This device is especially helpful for classes in which developing facility in oral or written use of the language is an objective.

W. V. Kaulfers [1] endorses the drill device of conjugating verbs in both declarative and interrogative sentences, and adds the suggestion that the vocabulary employed in such drill be of high frequency.

Facilitating the learning of the gender of French nouns by grouping them according to their endings is discussed by W. A. Beardsley [2] and by F. J. Carmody.[3] L. Loestoeter [4] has described useful devices for teaching German noun declension. H. Dahlstrom [5] has developed a device for teaching word order. The most unusual devices for drilling word and sentence order are those by Kullmer and Thelin.[6] Flash cards for drill of isolated words are also available, one set being published by the Universal Publishing Company of Oklahoma City.

[1] "Contextual Settings as Auxiliaries to Recall," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1927), pp. 5–8.

[2] "Teaching Gender of French Nouns by Endings," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (May, 1932), pp. 656–658.

[3] "Gender of French Nouns by Endings," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1935), pp. 19–21.

[4] "A Device for Teaching German Nouns to Beginners," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (March, 1927), pp. 359–364.

[5] "German Composition," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (March, 1928), pp. 644–645.

[6] *German Vocabulary Drill Book* (Kramer Publishing Company, Syracuse).

Composition, or writing, receives a good deal of attention as a method of drill on functional grammar. G. I. Dale [1] finds that "formal" composition fixes correct grammatical constructions in the student's mind. B. Crider [2] finds that repeated translations have value in correcting ungrammatical habits.

Phonograph records have been recommended for grammar drill, but would provide only reception, not expression, exercise unless the students made records for themselves. M. T. Griggs [3] has published descriptions of visual devices useful in teaching the agreement of the past participle in French, the distinction between conjunctive and disjunctive pronouns, and other grammatical points.

Workbooks for the various languages are becoming popular. They contain drill units for the fundamentals of grammar with many of the direct-method drill devices, suggestions on how to study, etc. Other published devices useful in grammar drill are verb pads for written verb drill and verb wheels in which the inflected forms of an irregular verb may be made to appear by placing the pointer on the infinitive of the verb in the margin. Verb charts, such as the one made for Spanish by C. A. Graeser,[4] are also available.

No matter what particular drill device is used, it is important to keep in mind that while drill is indispensable if functional grammar is the objective, too long and too frequent drills, if unrelieved by other work, kill interest and so defeat their own ends.

STUDIES OF SYNTAX AND TENSE FREQUENCIES

Although it is easy to make general statements regarding the amount of grammar needed for reading ability, it has not yet

[1] "Formal and Informal Composition," *H.*, Vol. 6 (Dec., 1923), pp. 348–355.

[2] "The Corrective Value of Repeated Translations," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 37 (Dec., 1929), pp. 771–779.

[3] "Graphic Grammar," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Feb., 1932), pp. 402–411.

[4] Published by World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

been determined with any degree of exactness just what or how much of syntax is important in the language course. There has been no study of syntax comparable with that of vocabulary, which has been and is increasingly becoming the basis of word selection in courses and textbooks. Such studies of grammar forms are very necessary if we are to know what to stress in our teaching. At present we have a number of attempts and partial studies that help and may indicate the best practice until broader ones are available. A series of syntax counts now in process by the Study should provide a sound basis for determining just what of syntax we shall need to embody in the two-year course.[1]

It is certain though that comparatively little grammar is needed in order to read and that this is needed only that forms may be recognized. In a program devoted essentially to reading it is not necessary that grammatical rules be learned so that they can be actively employed in expressing ideas in the foreign language. In the two-year course such functional grammar is needed only to a minimal extent; in the third and fourth years to a considerably greater extent.

Certain elements of grammar have been determined as essential to a recognitional knowledge of the grammar of a language. The first need is to provide a basis for differentiating between cases of articles, adjectives, and pronouns — nouns give little trouble if the article, adjective, and pronoun endings are known — and between persons, numbers, and finally modes of the verb. If the verb forms are recognized, there is no trouble about recognizing the number of the nouns and other substantives. Ability to read a foreign language does not require knowledge of many of the points of grammar frequently stressed. Among those that may well be omitted from the language course are study of the different cases governed by various verbs, adjectives, and prepositions; to what class a noun or a verb belongs; of what gender a

[1] So far only the Spanish syntax count has appeared. See H. Keniston's *Spanish Syntax List* (Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York; 1937).

noun is; whether adjectives are weak or strong or neither; word order; sentence order; when to use the various forms of the subjunctive mood; whether participles agree with the words they modify; whether an adjective stands before or after its noun; which tenses are used to express certain conditions or grammatical relationships.

Foreign-language teachers are continually asserting that they are obliged to teach their beginning students the rudiments of grammar that should have been taught them in the English class. W. S. Jack and J. A. Meredith [1] analyzed this situation and found by testing that 553 college freshmen with two to three entrance units in French or Spanish failed to recognize forms of English grammar as follows: auxiliary verb, 52 per cent; past participle, 56 per cent; relative pronoun, 57 per cent; subordinate clause, 79 per cent; transitive verb, 54 per cent. J. E. Barber [2] maintains, however, that English grammar is not an important factor in success in modern-language study. English usage, as evidencing language sense, might correlate much higher with modern-language achievement. Especially if and when reading ability becomes the chief objective of the foreign-language course will English grammar be still less of a factor in foreign-language learning than it is now generally considered to be.

L. C. and S. L. Pressey tabulated grammatical terms found in several English and eight modern-language grammars and found 260 different ones.[3] These were submitted to twelve language professors for rating as to their importance in foreign-language study. As a result terms were classified as follows: those necessary for students in elementary foreign-language courses (45 terms), and terms necessary for advanced students of a

[1] *Outline English Grammar for Romance Language Students* (John C. Winston Company, Philadelphia; 1928).

[2] "English Grammar of No Benefit to Pupils in Foreign Language," *The Nation's Schools*, Vol. 17 (Jan., 1936), p. 25.

[3] "The Language Concepts Needed by College Freshmen," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (May, 1930), pp. 624–630.

foreign language (41 terms). The slight list of 45 terms necessary for elementary work is heartening. The list as given by Pressey consists of noun, adjective, verb, pronoun, adverb, conjunction, preposition, singular number, plural number, personal pronoun, possessive, main clause, subordinate clause, predicate, subject, object, phrase, future tense, present tense, modify, agree, appositive, antecedent, first person, second person, third person, negative sentence, interrogative sentence, feminine, masculine, and neuter gender, active and passive voice, indirect quotation, present and past participle, auxiliary, compound tense, infinitive, transitive, intransitive, regular and irregular verb, consonant, and vowel.[1]

Hagboldt[2] discusses specifically for German the minimum essentials of recognitional grammar and lists as subjects that should be studied carefully the definite and indefinite articles, possessive and demonstrative pronouns, *haben*, *sein*, *werden*, weak verbs, strong verbs with vowel gradation, irregular weak verbs, passive voice, the principles of formation and the uses of subjunctive forms, and dependent word order. Things which he believes need not be stressed are adjective declension and comparison, adverbs, prepositions, coördinating and subordinating conjunctions, numerals, double infinitive, modals, separable prefixes.

Counts of tense frequency in French were made by A. Croteau,[3] H. Jackson,[4] and E. I. Lake;[5] for Spanish H. H. Arnold,[6] E. C.

[1] For the list of forty-one terms for advanced students see *op. cit.*, p. 628.

[2] P. Hagboldt, "The Relative Importance of Grammar in a German Reading Course," *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (Jan., 1928), pp. 18–22.

[3] "Le temps par l'ordre de frequence," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Feb., 1929), pp. 399–400.

[4] *Syntax of the Past Tenses in Certain Contemporary French Plays* (unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago); 1930.

[5] *Syntactic Study of French Reading Texts* (unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago); 1929.

[6] "Tense Frequency in the Spanish Novel and Drama," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Dec., 1929), pp. 234–235; and "A Survey of Tense Frequencies in French, Spanish, and Italian," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 17 (June, 1932), pp. 87–89.

Hills and J. O. Anderson[1] tabulated frequencies of tenses, moods, and personal pronouns. Spanish syntax comes in for several studies. J. D. Fitz-Gerald[2] sets down the chief difficulties, and J. Warshaw[3] gives a useful list of the subjects in Spanish grammar which need most drill. In another article he calls attention to the five vital subjects which must be mastered in Spanish composition: position, agreement, gender, mood, and accentuation.

Error counts in students' written work indicate what subjects are found most difficult. J. P. Breckheimer[4] found free composition most reliable as a measure of student ability and analyzed one thousand examples of it in four years of French. Besides these he studied five hundred "prose" compositions written in second-, third-, and fourth-year French in one high school. In both types of composition he found that the same errors persist throughout the three or four years of the course. The most important types of errors in both kinds of composition were, in order of prevalence, spelling, agreement, vocabulary, verb, preposition, gender, article, and pronoun. Purely grammatical errors — that is, errors in agreement, verb, preposition, article, and pronoun — comprised 49 per cent of all mistakes made. Errors in spelling, vocabulary, and gender amounted to 47 per cent in free, and 46 per cent in prose, composition. Vocabulary errors were much more frequent in prose than in free composition. Wrong tense amounted to 24 per cent of errors in free, and 40 per cent in prose, composition. The subjunctive mood is most difficult when it occurs in adjectival and adverbial clauses and con-

[1] "Frequency of Moods and Tenses of Verbs in Recent Spanish Plays," *H.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1929), pp. 604–606; *H.*, Vol. 13 (Nov., 1930), pp. 413–416.

[2] "Syntax in Second-Year College Classes in Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 13 (Oct., 1930), pp. 319–330.

[3] "Automatic Reactions in Practical Foreign Language Work," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Dec., 1924), pp. 151–158; "Spanish Composition," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (Oct., 1922), pp. 17–25.

[4] "The Kind and Frequency of Typical Errors in Written French," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 12 (June, 1927), pp. 5–7.

ditional sentences. The author of this study finally recommended intensive study of accents and cedilla, spelling, agreement of adjective with noun, agreement of verb with subject, agreement of predicative adjective with subject, past participle agreement, as well as emphasis on idioms varying in French and English, as *s'amuser*, not *avoir un bon temps;* drill on the most commonly used verbs, and on tenses and moods, on verbs conjugated with *être*, rules for gender, relative pronouns, direct and indirect objects, and the position of adverbs.

B. Crider [1] made the following tabulation of kinds of errors in Spanish found in an experiment with three first-year college classes: grammatical 35 per cent, of which 22 per cent were wrong tense; vocabulary 65 per cent, 60 per cent of which consisted in the use of the wrong word.

A German error count in which thirty teachers collaborated was reported by L. V. Hathaway.[2] Secondary-school translations of English-German exercises were checked to the extent of 51,738 running words. Errors in round thousands were found to be as follows: verbs 16, vocabulary 8, *der* and *ein* words 7, spelling 6, nouns 5, adjectives 4, prepositions 3, pronouns 3. Idioms, conjunctions, and adverbs featured in the errors only 678, 422, and 280 times respectively. Verb errors, also in round thousands, were: position 6, active indicative 4, modals 1, use of tense 1, principal parts 1; and subjunctive, imperative, and passive indicative respectively only 781, 456, and 359. These data were not differentiated according to semesters.

W. V. Kaulfers [3] made a tabulation of grammatical terms used in eight Spanish grammars, with results similar to those indicated in the Pressey report.

[1] "An Analysis and Interpretation of Errors Made in Translating Spanish Prose," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Nov., 1930), pp. 123–126.

[2] "A German Error Count — An Experimental Study," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (April, 1929), pp. 512–533.

[3] "The Grammatical Difficulty of Beginning Spanish Grammars," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 16 (April, 1931), pp. 43–45.

The matter of learning terminology is complicated by the fact that there is so little agreement between textbook writers in the matter of terms used. Investigators found 260 different terms, some of which were used only once in all the textbooks investigated. For these the Presseys propose substituting a total of 86 terms. J. H. Nunemaker [1] investigated thirty Spanish grammars and compared their tense terminology with that of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature of the Modern Language Association and the N.E.A. He showed the utter anarchy ruling in the former. H. D. Austin [2] joins in the protest against this anarchy. A. W. Aron [3] makes suggestions to improve the terminology of the German subjunctive. In an attempt to simplify the problems of teaching grammatical concepts, the American Association of Teachers of German appointed a committee on nomenclature and finally adopted an official list in which the terms are given in both English and German.[4]

ORGANIZATION OF GRAMMAR MATERIAL

The material for the grammar course has been organized by various writers in a way that considerably simplifies the teaching of it. P. G. Schroeder [5] has a device for bringing the difficulties of the German past and present perfect under two all-inclusive rules. L. H. Limper offers valuable aids and outlines.[6] H. F.

[1] "Tense Nomenclature in Spanish Grammars," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Dec., 1931), pp. 204–208.

[2] "Grammar Pitfalls," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Nov., 1930), pp. 119–123.

[3] "Tense Terminology of the German Subjunctive," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 2 (Nov., 1917), pp. 78–83.

[4] F. W. Meisnest, Chairman, "Report of the Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature in the Teaching of German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 8 (March–May, 1935), pp. 66–71; 110–118.

[5] "On the Difference between the Functions of the Simple Past and the Present and Perfect Indicative in Modern German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (Jan., 1935), pp. 247–256.

[6] "Use of Outlines and Other Devices in Teaching French Grammar," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 5 (Nov., 1920), pp. 102–106; P. E. Titsworth, "Devices for Classroom Procedure," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 2 (Nov., 1917), pp. 68–77.

Field [1] gives a more logical arrangement of the subjunctive than generally given in our grammars and supplies excellent illustrations of the subjunctive from French literature. E. T. Parker [2] simplifies the Spanish subjunctive by classifying its uses as expressing command, uncertainty, unreality, attitude or feeling. F. W. Kaufmann [3] proposes to develop in class the German subjunctive forms from the past indicative endings of weak verbs. To this plan E. Jackson [4] objects as being too complicated. He also objects to teaching the subjunctive inductively as Kaufmann proposes.

Problems for Study

1. Study the modern-language syllabi of several cities and make a composite syllabus based on them.
2. Criticize one of the syllabi as to: (1) objectives; (2) materials; (3) methods; (4) the amount of grammar and composition considered in relation to the objectives as stated in the syllabus.
3. Set up a minimum program of grammar for a two-year regular high-school course in French, German, Spanish, or Italian, supposing that the principal objective is reading ability, with all other objectives kept in the background.
4. Invent drill sentences in French, German, Spanish, or Italian for a sliding synopsis of a regular and one of an irregular verb: active and passive, singular and plural, with attributive adjective, possessive adjective, relative pronoun, and personal pronoun in different positions.
5. Write French, German, Spanish, or Italian completion exercises for relative pronoun, singular and plural, all genders. Make missing-word exercises to drill all forms of the subjunctive, present tense, in any one of the four languages.
6. Write out the lists of forty-five and of forty-one grammatical terms needed for learning French, German, Spanish, or Italian.
7. Construct a scale for the selection of a grammar text. Give references to articles on which you have based your work.

[1] "Teaching the French Subjunctive," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Dec., 1926), pp. 150–169.

[2] "Rationalizing the Subjunctive," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Jan., 1928), pp. 292–294.

[3] "Erarbeitung of the Subjunctive," *G.Q.*, Vol. 3 (March, 1930), pp. 41–46.

[4] "Debunking the Subjunctive," *G.Q.*, Vol. 3 (May, 1930), pp. 103–106.

Chapter Seven

Word and Idiom Study

WORD study would seem to the uninitiated the whole task in learning to read, and indeed with the help of the new lists of most frequently used words and idioms it comes almost to this. If the student knows all the words and idioms in a paragraph, even a very slight knowledge of grammar will keep him from misreading the meaning. About the only things he could mistake are person, number, case, tense, or mood, and it requires but little effort to be able to recognize these compared to the time and effort it takes to learn 2500 to 3000 new words, the reading vocabulary of the first two years in college. It is accordingly essential that we set ourselves systematically to teaching words, for no matter what the principle objective of the language course is, words are the *sine qua non* of its attainment.

METHODS OF STUDY

On the method of learning new words, G. Shaltkowska has done important research.[1] He concludes that indirect teaching methods develop greater efficiency in delayed recall, use of words in free composition, and the learning of nouns in adverbial compounds; but direct methods are more effective in the learning of concrete nouns, prepositions, and verbs.

R. J. Maronpot [2] lists twenty-eight devices for teaching vocabulary by a direct method. In these he makes use of pictures, games, realia, cognates, related word groups, etc. His tests indicate more exactly the nature of the devices used, as follows: underline

[1] "Experimentelle Beitrage zur Frage der direkten und indirekten Methode in neusprachlichen Unterricht," *Zeitschrift der Angewandte Psychologie*, Vol. 25 (June, 1925), pp. 65–87.

[2] "Teaching and Testing Vocabulary on a One-Language Basis," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (April, 1930), pp. 554–560.

(1) synonyms, (2) antonyms, (3) least related words, (4) most closely related words, (5) onomatopoetic words, (6) words that fit the thought best; write (7) the feminine form of the word, (8) the masculine form, (9) the adjective related to a certain noun, (10) the noun related to a certain verb, (11) the verb associated with a certain adjective; (12) classify words into groups, such as names of fruits, members of a family, animals, etc.

The methods most commonly used for developing vocabulary are (1) pointing and gesturing to demonstrate the common names of objects, persons, actions, qualities, in the classroom; (2) reviewing vocabulary by logical groups — for example, words referring to the house, garden, or some such idea — or as synonyms or antonyms; (3) comparing with English words, 40 to 50 per cent of which have French, German, Spanish, or Italian cognates and identicals; (4) inferring meanings of the foreign words from context; (5) grouping all words derived from the same root-word, thereby encouraging inferring the meaning of hitherto unknown words and making retention easier; (6) memorizing frequency word lists in foreign-English pairs.

The last of these is perhaps the least satisfactory of all the methods because there is little satisfaction in it for the learner, and according to psychological principles the pupil must have a feeling of satisfaction in the activities in which he engages if effective learning is to result. The making of original discoveries provides such a feeling and suggests that word drills in which pupils find meanings for themselves have a special value. The first five methods listed utilize this principle and are in addition to this fact superior to the last method in that they set up a rich variety of associations with each word. Nevertheless learning associated pairs has been shown to be an effective learning device and may be employed up to the point where interest lags.

Of course use of words and idioms in such functional exercise as reading, writing, or conversation helps to fix sounds and mean-

ings. B. Crider [1] has found that repeated translations have a fixative value. G. I. Dale [2] finds that "formal" composition fixes words, phrases, and idioms in the pupil's mind. This exercise is accordingly stressed early in the course. Later "informal" composition is developed to encourage flexibility and freedom in the use of the words and idioms learned. E. R. Goddard [3] develops familiarity with words and idioms in her classes by having the students translate back into French translations from French that have previously been made. The original serves as a model for criticizing the final composition.

Development of facility in the use of words and idioms in expressing thought is of course a vital part of language teaching, but it is not the first concern of this chapter, which will deal primarily with the task of selecting words and idioms for study and of providing methods of drill on them.

POINTING AND GESTURING

The method of pointing and gesturing to teach foreign words is a proved method of learning the names of objects, persons, qualities, and actions found in the classroom and is excellent because, if reviewed sufficiently, it forms direct bonds between the objects, persons, qualities, and actions and the foreign words. One can teach hundreds of valuable words in this way, and the words will be usable for oral expression as well as for reading. This exercise has the merit of creating a feeling for the language.

LOGICAL GROUPINGS OR SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS

The exercise of reviewing vocabulary by logical word groups is very stimulating and enjoyable. Words may be grouped under such heads as parts of the body, the house, members of the family,

[1] "The Corrective Value of Repeated Translations," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 37 (Dec., 1929), pp. 771–779.

[2] "Teaching to Talk by Tema," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Dec., 1928), pp. 197–203.

[3] "Retranslation — as a Substitute for the 'Theme,'" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1927), pp. 204–208.

expressions of time from the smallest to the greatest, including divisions of the day, greetings for all occasions, eating, dining, making the daily toilet, the daily work. This drill is best conducted on the volunteer basis. If the text being read deals with such subjects as fisherman's life, farm life, vacationing, hiking, and boys' escapades, an occasional review of the vocabulary by groups makes a pleasant and profitable exercise. Such review can be developed with almost any text. In classes working for oral skill, it should be conducted in the foreign language.

Synonym and antonym exercises may be recommended for all classes, although they are most effective as review exercises rather than for learning new words except as an occasional change from other methods or when a list of words to be learned is prepared with synonyms or antonyms used as definitions. The associative bond in this method is not very strong and the words need ample reviewing, but it has very definite values.

Texts that give lists of synonym or antonym pairs and groups will prove extremely helpful to the teacher who wants to use this method of word study. One can, however, dictate synonyms and antonyms so far as these exist for any list of words instead of giving the English equivalents. Another excellent way of developing these lists is to have one or several of the best students take each a portion of the text being read and make a list of all synonyms and antonyms found in it.[1] When the reading lesson is finished by the class, this list may be written on the board by those who collected it, to be copied and learned by the class. The next day we may use synonym and antonym drill based on it to our heart's desire. Elementary texts will lend themselves best to this sort of exercise.

Defining foreign words with foreign words means of course using synonyms or equivalent locutions. All the one-language

[1] The entire German elementary word-frequency list has been so developed in Handschin's *Basic Vocabulary Mastery Series* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1935). So far only Part One has appeared.

dictionaries employ this device. If the teacher wishes to use this method extensively, he should have his class use one-language dictionaries of the foreign language, and bar English from the classroom. This is a tip-top method for developing speaking skill but should not be used in elementary stages of the course or where speaking skill is not a desired end of the course.

THE USE OF ENGLISH COGNATES AND IDENTICALS

The use of English cognates and identicals as a means of learning foreign words is perhaps our most valuable means for building vocabulary, especially if reading is the objective.

The method of learning words through cognates and identicals means going from the known to the unknown and tying the two together. The English word is the solid possession of the student. The foreign word can be learned most economically by tying it firmly to this. That is, we ingrain the habit of always looking for the English cognate, or identical, and remembering the foreign word by it. There is, however, a certain per cent of "hard" words about which the learner must build some more or less arbitrary kind of associations, but these are bound to be less strong and lasting than those inherent in the learning of the great number of words that are identical or cognate with vernacular words. Where the English vocabulary of pupils is not adequate, this method of learning is of course impracticable.

Up to 40 or 50 per cent of English words are cognates of French, German, Spanish, or Italian words; either the word is the same, or is changed in spelling, or is derived from a common root with the foreign word. V. A. C. Henmon[1] states that 43 per cent of the first 5000 words of the French frequency list have identicals or cognates easily inferred from context in reading. D. C. Buck[2] showed that 1325 of the first 2500 words in Van

[1] "Recent Developments in the Study of Modern Foreign Language Problems," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Dec., 1934), pp. 187–201.

[2] *A Derivative Study of the First 2500 Words in the Van der Beke French Word Book* (unpublished master's thesis, University of Iowa; 1931).

der Beke have English cognates or derivatives. H. M. Eddy[1] made a study of 9349 English words of E. L. Thorndike's[2] list and found 41.38 per cent derived from French; 36.96 per cent from German; 14.3 per cent from Latin; 0.33 per cent from Greek; and 7.03 per cent from various other sources. Miss Eddy counts the direct sources only, but we know that the bulk of Latin roots are found in Spanish and Italian as well as in French, and that the bulk of French words are from Latin and some are Germanic. Her percentage of French words in English as indicated above is therefore overweighted. The writer has shown[3] that of the 2402 words of Morgan's *German Frequency Word Book* 23.1 per cent are identicals with English, 26.2 per cent are cognates, and 50.7 cannot be interpreted by reference to English. H. R. Huse has shown[4] that in French these percentages are in round numbers respectively 14, 39, and 46, words in the latter group having either no association or only a "logical" one.

The reason for this similarity of the French and English languages, we may note, is the Norman-French domination of England, which began in 1066, and the later intercourse between the two nations. The Roman-Latin church also had a great linguistic influence on the English language through the scholarship it supported in the Middle Ages and its continuing use of Latin in its services. This stock of words has its counterpart in Spanish and Italian. French, Spanish, and Italian are sister languages derived from Latin, and the bulk of the words in each is Latin. German and English are sister languages, descended from West Germanic. The basic difference between modern German and English derives from a fundamental sound shift from

[1] "The French Element in English," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (Feb., 1926), pp. 271–280.

[2] *The Teacher's Word Book* (Columbia University Press, New York; 1921).

[3] "The Question of the Most Economical Learning of the German Vocabulary," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Dec., 1932), pp. 195–199.

[4] *The Psychology of Foreign Language Study*, pp. 193 ff. (University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill; 1931).

the parent Germanic that German underwent but English did not. Essential elements of this shift are recorded in Grimm's law.

M. West [1] has moreover indicated that both speaking and reading vocabulary in the different languages are fairly identical for the first thousand words of the frequency word lists. H. S. Eaton [2] went farther and showed that 739 words are common to the first 1000 words in the French, German, Spanish, and English frequency lists.

Many students have difficulty in recognizing cognates. This difficulty must be obviated by giving the student a list of the common correspondent spellings. We may summarize these for German as follows: German endings are frequently lost off the correspondent English words, as the *at*, *us*, *(i)um*, *en*, and *e* of the nouns *Resultat*, *Spiritus*, *Publikum*, *Posten*, *Periode*, or the *en* of the infinitive, as in *senden*. Again a final *e* or *le* is occasionally added to make the English word, as in *Natur*, *Prinzip*. The German final *kel* becomes *cle* in English, as in *Artikel*. *Tät* and *tär* become *ty* and *tary*, as in *Majestät* and *Sekretär*. Final *zier* becomes *cer*, as in *Offizier*. *Ieren* in verbs becomes *y* or is dropped, as in *studieren*, *marschieren*. The adjective suffix *isch* becomes *ish*, *ic*, or *ical*, as in *spanisch*, *ækonomisch*, *historisch*. Vowels change as follows: *a* becomes *ue* or *ua*, as in *Gast* and *Garde*. *Ä* and *a* become *e* or *ea*, as in *ästhetisch* and *klar*. *A* becomes *ai*, as in *Haar*. *Ie* becomes *e* or *y*, as in *Linie*, *Papier*, *Artillerie*. *E* becomes *ea*, as in *See*, *Fest*. *Ei* becomes *i*, *y*, or *ee*, as in *fein*, *Partei*, *frei*. *O* becomes *oa*, *ea*, or *ow*, as in *Kohle*, *Strom*, *Krone*. *Ö* becomes *oi*, as in *Öl*. *U* becomes *o*, *ou*, or *ea*, as in *Sturm*, *Kurs*, *Brust*. *Ü* becomes *i*, as in *küssen*. The final *sch* of verbs becomes *sh*, as in *waschen*. An initial *k* becomes *c*, as in *Kanone*. Other correspondences are so close as to be readily identified.

[1] "Speaking Vocabulary in a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (April, 1930), pp. 509–521.

[2] *Comparative Frequency List*, etc. (International Auxiliary Language Association, 415 Lexington Ave., New York).

Many French words are identical with the English except for (1) the accent or a detail of spelling: *loyal, bagage, voyage, vocation, aptitude, nomination, indépendance, procession, division, notable, capable, présentable, débonnaire, estime, dentiste, victime, exemple, littérature, mariage;* (2) an added *e: classe, groupe, patriotisme, réalisme, apparence;* (3) dropping final *e: natur, futur, degré;* (5) inverting the ending: *centre, lettre.*

The French verb ending *ir* becomes *ish* in English, as in *finir, accomplir; er* becomes *ate*, as in *hésiter, ruminer.* Other corresponding endings are *ier = er: barbier, papier; ant = ing: charmant; ment = ly: décidément, inopportunément; eur = or: professeur, gouverneur, acteur; ice = ess: actrice; eux* or *ieux = ous: furieux, envieux, délicieux, amoureux; aire = ary: contraire, apothicaire; oire = ory: histoire, gloire; ien* or *ain = an: Prussien, Americain; iel, el, elle = tial, ual, al: substantiel, habituel, formelle; ier = er* or *iar: officier, familier; é, i, u = ed, t: agé, parti, descendu; é, ée = y: majesté, liberté, qualité, fraternité, armée; i* or *ie = y: cri, parti, physiologie; ère = ery* or *ry: mystère, ministère; f = ve: motif, prerogatif; ic* or *ique = ic: public, heroïque, historique; c = k, ke,* or *ck: parc, lac, sac; qu* or *que = c, k,* or *cal: physique, musique, remarquable; ê* or *ô = es* or *os: forêt, hôte; é = s, es,* or *ex: étrange, établir, échange.*

Most of the identicals have also identical meaning, especially those ending in *tion, sion, ciel, tiel, able, ie, ique, (i)eux.*

Deceptive doubles in French-English are *raisin = grape, journal = newspaper, prune = plum, rouge = red,* etc.

Numerous Spanish words are identical in form and meaning with English words: *visión, terror, moral, angel, civil, idea, rumor;* or are identical except for the loss of the infinitive ending: *aceptar, afirmar;* or are identical except for dropping the final *e: constante.* Sometimes a final *a* becomes *e: capa, fama, figura, fortuna;* or the *a* is dropped: *fiesta, costa, raza;* or the final *o* is dropped: *aspecto, mucho, franco;* or it is replaced by *e: futuro, falso.*

Suffixes correspond as follows: *dad* or *tad = ty: superioridad, facultad, humanidad.*

Final *o* or *a* = *e: bravo, extremo.*

Final *io* or *ia* = *y: historio, diario, extraordinario, familia, fantasia.*

Final *ioso, oso* = *ious, ous: furioso, amoroso.*

Final *ción* = *tion: nación, sensación.*

Final *cia* = *ce: influencia, importancia.*

Final *mente* = *ly: inmediatemente.*

The *ir* ending of infinitive of verbs = *ite: reunir.*

The *ir, er, ar, car, ecer,* of the infinitive = *e, ish: finir, mover, procurar, publicar, establecer.*

Initial Spanish *h* is changed to *f* in English: *horca* = *fork; hado* = *fate.*

Initial Spanish *ll* becomes *cl, fl, pl* in English: *llave* = *clef; llamar* = *claim; lluvia* = *pluvial.*

Spanish words beginning with *e* followed by two consonants drop the initial *e: estación, esplendor, especie, espiritu, estudio, escala.*

The *n* before the *s* of Latin words is lost in Spanish words, but may or may not be in English: Latin *insula* = Spanish *isla* = English *isle;* Latin *sensus* = Spanish *seso* = English *sense.*

Most of the Spanish-English identicals have identical meaning. Deceptive doubles, however, give trouble. The learner must be guided by whether the supposed meaning makes sense in the context or not. *Clerical* is such a "double," referring in Spanish to clergy only, while the English *clerical* refers to clerks as well; *complexion* means *constitution* in Spanish; *idioma* means *language;* and *contestar, to answer.*

With a copy of these corresponding spellings and changes before him and with some practice under the care of the teacher, the student will gain a recognition vocabulary by leaps and bounds.

For German cognates we must give also a simple exposition of Grimm's law of consonant change as follows: Nine consonants were changed regularly to nine others from Germanic to German, and since English did not take part in this change there is this difference between German and English which retained the old Germanic forms. The consonants are the voiced *b, g, d;* the

voiceless *p, k, t;* and the continuants *p, f* (*v*), *th, h.* Initials *b, f, g, k, h,* remained in German as they had been in Germanic, and as they are in English, as for example, in *Bett, fein, gehen, Kusz, Hand. P* changed to *pf* or *f,* as in *Pflaume, reif; k* changed to *ch,* as in *Milch; t* to *z* or *s,* as in *Zinn, Wasser; f* to *b,* as in *Weib; ch* to *k,* as in *Kirche; th* to *d,* as in *Bruder.*

A partial cognate is one which has two meanings, one of which corresponds to the meaning in the other language. The French *causer,* for example, means *to cause* but also *to converse.* Here the learner must beware, as indeed he must in judging any cognate. His recourse is the context, *Je causait avec lui aujourd'hui* would certainly not mean *I caused with him today.*

Words with identical spelling but different meaning are deceptive cognates. An example of this is the Spanish *el chair,* which is not English *chair* but *flesh.* Attention has been called to these often, and lists of them assembled by C. Downer, in "Pitfalls in the French Vocabulary";[1] by W. K. Jones, in "Deceptive Doubles";[2] by S. Scatori, in "Deceptive Cognates in Spanish";[3] by R. Altrocchi, for Italian, in "Some Deceptive Cognates," "More Deceptive Cognates," and "A Third List of Deceptive Cognates."[4] The best the teacher can do about deceptive cognates is to mention their existence and warn the student to be on his guard against them, and always to consult the context to see whether the supposed cognate makes sense.

INFERRING MEANING FROM CONTEXT

Students have difficulty inferring cognates because of the varying spelling in different languages, and especially because of the

[1] *Le Petit Journal* (Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., New York; 1924).
[2] *M.L.J.,* Vol. 20 (Oct., 1935), pp. 15–18.
[3] *M.L.J.,* Vol. 16 (Feb., 1932), pp. 396–401.
[4] *It.,* Vol. 4 (Sept., 1927), pp. 107–212; Vol. 7 (June, 1930), pp. 73–80; Vol. 8 (June, 1931), pp. 33–39; Vol. 9 (March, 1932), pp. 5–9. Books on the subject are: M. Koessler's *Les faux amis ou les trahisons du vocabulaire* and J. Derocquiny's *Autres mots anglais perfides* (Vuibert, Paris; 1930).

chaotic English spelling. Pronouncing at least semi-vocally will sometimes betray the relationship and so for this reason as well as others should always be practiced in studying. Onomatopoetic words — the German *rascheln*, meaning *rustle*, for example — will often reveal their meaning in this way. Sometimes what has gone on, or has been stated, in context offers the clue to the meaning. The position, function, location, quality, or association of the object, person, thing, or institution named often suggests the meaning. The part of a house entered by climbing down an outside stairs, for example, is probably the cellar; an evidently pleasant quality of a voice is not raucousness but possibly euphony; a substance one spreads on bread is probably butter, especially if it is spelled *beurre;* a thing which grows in the earth is not a child but a plant; a thing which is used to spray plants is not a telescope but a sprayer. Anyway, if the teacher uses texts which are properly graded, increasing only little in difficulty from one lesson or one text to the next, his students will find but few new words in any sentence, and when all the words but one or two are known, inference is generally easy.

DERIVATIVE OR ETYMOLOGICAL GROUPING OF WORDS AS AN AID IN INFERRING MEANINGS

We must explain to the student that human language was once very primitive, with only a few nouns and action words; that as man evolved, he invented variant forms of the nouns and verbs, adjectives, adverbs, compound nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc., so that today we have for each original root word a whole family, or group, of etymologically derived words.

We naturally remember words so bound together more easily than we do isolated words. The processes of learning by wholes and of going from the known to the unknown facilitate learning and retention. The meaning of unknown words is moreover

suggested by their evident relationship to one or more known words. Examples of such groups are: man, manly, manful(ly), manhood, manlike, manliness, etc.; work, worker, working-man, workable, unworkable, working-day, work-table; or black, blacken, shoe-black, pitch-black, black-gray, blue-black, blackish, etc. Almost any dictionary of synonyms gives such derivative groups [1] and will prove rich in new learnings for the teacher himself.

In teaching derivative groups one should first explain how they came to be, as has been suggested above, and then immediately ask the class to give the words related to a certain word. Such exercises will probably not be taken up in secondary school before the second year, nor in college before the second semester of the first year. After the initial explanation of derivative groups, one should spend a short time on this exercise every day for several days, and later less often. A good plan is to choose words which are found much in the text in hand. When developing a reading lesson, which means preparing it with the class in advance by explaining the most difficult words and other points needing attention, the teacher should ask the class to guess new words from study of their basic elements which may be familiar.

If, to repeat, gradation of texts has been proper, it will be rare that at least the best students will not be able to guess any hard word either from context or from their knowledge of the word root. The teacher must, however, not tell the meanings but only keep on giving suggestions until his resources have been exhausted. Then he can as a last resort define the word in the foreign language or embody its equivalent in a foreign-language sentence, as *Nachbarin ist maskulin von Nachbar*, or *Voisinage ça veut dire "neighborhood."* Either of these two procedures naturally is far preferable to saying, "*Nachbar* means neighbor," or, "*Voisinage* means neighborhood."

[1] See p. 437 in the Appendix for list of French, German, Spanish, and Italian dictionaries.

LEARNING WORDS IN ASSOCIATED PAIRS

Until further experimentation with learning words in associated pairs — foreign and vernacular — as they are found in dictionaries, we may perhaps safely continue to assume this method inferior to that of learning through context. For in learning equivalent pairs there is only one association or equivalence between the two words, and the English word is the only association with the new foreign word. This is too slight a bond to insure retention unless relearning is continued to the point of loss of interest. To be sure, L. C. Seibert [1] showed learning by associated pairs superior to learning words in context, but her findings on this subject are not very convincing. According to Stoddard [2] the advantage of associated-pair learning depends upon what use one wishes to make of the learning. Besides, in a single-performance experiment better results might be obtained through this method of learning than would follow from repeated use of it as regular classroom practice.

WORD AND IDIOM FREQUENCY LISTS

The method of learning words and idioms in associated pairs is the common basis for study of word and idiom frequency lists, a method that can be recommended to a limited extent. Pedagogical revisions of the word and idiom lists are now available at very reasonable prices. The French list does not give the English meaning, which would, therefore, have to be dictated by the teacher. The German and Spanish do give the English equivalents.

These lists can, from an early stage in the course, be very properly used as material for memorizing. They may be assigned

[1] "An Experiment on the Relative Efficiency of Studying French Vocabulary in Associated Pairs versus Studying French Vocabulary in Context," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 21 (April, 1930), pp. 297–314.

[2] "An Experiment in Verbal Learning," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 20 (Sept., 1929), pp. 452–457.

in small portions from time to time after other initial difficulties have been overcome, possibly in the second year of the secondary-school course although the class will not yet have had some of the words or idioms in their reading.

In the first part of the lists the words and the idioms are commonly arranged in order of frequency of occurrence and in the second part in alphabetical order. Those of highest frequency are the ones to learn first. The portions of a list assigned for learning must of course be reviewed several times. A good method of review is for the teacher to speak the foreign word or idiom and to require a student to supply the English equivalent, or if the spoken foreign language is not understood by the class — as it may not be where reading only is an objective — the teacher may hand out a list of foreign words, the students to supply the English. Or he may speak the foreign words or idioms and have the entire class write the English equivalents. In these ways word and idiom learning may be varied to suit the objectives set for any class. But it is important that words and idioms be mastered even if only reading ability is to be achieved.

The selection of words to learn, whether for an oral, reading, or oral-reading vocabulary, and the method of learning them will of course depend largely on the teaching objectives. A minimum speaking vocabulary will, for example, be somewhat different from a basic reading vocabulary.

The publication of foreign word and idiom frequency lists is very probably the most valuable contribution that the Study has made to the cause of language teaching. Widespread proper use of these — or better of the pedagogical revisions of the same mentioned above — would make a wonderful difference in student achievement in modern languages. They have already exerted a great influence on foreign-language texts and it seems certain that in time all elementary books and even the more advanced reading texts will employ the vocabulary of these lists.

For purposes of the two-year secondary-school course, texts

based on scientifically selected vocabulary lists are now available and they should be used. There is little excuse for using other material when texts honestly prepared in this way have been published. In such texts there will somewhere be given information about the number of words used from the frequency lists. The same lists that are used as the basis for determining the vocabulary of the texts are also available for classes for review purposes and various other exercises such as certain ones indicated above. The price of the revised lists has been kept low by the publishers, ranging from twenty-five to fifty cents.

Further testimony to the value of frequency studies is found in the fact that the College Entrance Examination Board bases its examinations for the first two years of modern language on a vocabulary of two to three thousand high-frequency words in their normal uses and their idiomatic combinations. The standard tests known commercially are unfortunately not all based on this vocabulary or any specific portion of it. However, if these tests are to measure what is being taught in better schools and will be sure to be taught rather commonly within a few years, they will have to be revised on the basis of the frequency lists.

Because the use of faulty word lists has in some localities been forced upon teachers by decree of superior officers, some teachers have conceived a resentment against all frequency lists. Perhaps the revised lists, coupled with better ways of using them, may reconcile alienated teachers to their use. Teachers, moreover, need to become accustomed to the use of new means and materials. If these bring better results, teachers will in their own interest use them.

The first scientific foreign-language word count was made by F. W. Kaeding [1] for German. E. L. Thorndike [2] followed this with his *Teacher's Word-Book* of ten thousand most frequently used English words. These two works established the scientific

[1] *Häufigkeitswörterbuch der deutschen Sprache* (Mittler und Sohn, Berlin; 1888).
[2] Columbia University Press, New York; 1921.

technique. For other foreign languages, however, there were still no word or idiom counts. There were various collections of idioms and words for French, German, Spanish, and Italian, but of these we no longer need to take note. Beginning in 1921, attempts were made at modern-language word counts. H. Keniston published a short list of Spanish words in 1920.[1] Early lists of German words by Wheelock, Meras, Roth, and Bierwirth served their day. W. Wadepuhl followed with an actual word count of the twenty-three most frequently used German grammars;[2] this revealed a vocabulary of 3500 words, of which only 227 were common to all. As this was too small a number of words for an elementary list, Wadepuhl got together, by comparing the books, a list of 750 words. This list was now further developed by Wadepuhl, aided by a committee of the Modern Language Association of the Central West and South, and was officially adopted by this association in 1924. In it 1195 words were set as the vocabulary for the first two years of German.

A committee under L. A. Wilkens in New York City elaborated French and Spanish vocabularies which were later published as *French Word and Idiom Lists* and *Spanish Word and Idiom Lists*.[3] Elsie Jamieson counted the words in ten popular Spanish grammars and found results similar to Wadepuhl's, namely a total of 4488 words, of which only 249 were common to all ten. She finally published a vocabulary of 1093 words which were common to five or more of the ten grammars.[4]

Further comparative studies of vocabulary in grammars and elementary books were made by E. W. Bagster-Collins,[5] by

[1] "Common Words in Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 3 (March, 1920), pp. 85–96.

[2] "A Standardized Vocabulary for Elementary German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (Oct., 1923), pp. 23–31. See also in the *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (Feb., 1928), pp. 68–73, Wadepuhl's list of two hundred German idioms taken from fifteen of the most-read German texts.

[3] Doubleday, Doran & Co., New York; 1927.

[4] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (March, 1924), pp. 325–333.

[5] "Standardization of Vocabulary in Beginner's Books," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 18 (Oct., 1917), pp. 245–248.

C. W. Cartwright,[1] by B. D. Wood,[2] and by A. Ortmann.[3] It is interesting that about this time R. Merthner was evolving a list for school purposes from Kaeding's frequency list already mentioned. Merthner [4] substituted the easy high-frequency words of Kaeding's count for difficult low-frequency words of literary texts and moreover determined by experiment the amount of drill to be devoted to each pair of words. M. West later used this technique and published his form of it in his *Bilingualism*.[5]

V. A. C. Henmon was the first to produce in the United States a modern-language word book based on scientific count.[6] Of its 400,000 words, 80,000 were taken from school texts, 140,000 from modern French writers, 50,000 from magazine articles, and from 15,000 to 30,000 each from letters and telegrams, popular fiction, political and military articles, poetry, newspaper stories and articles, and philosophical prose. The total number of words reduced to a dictionary basis was 9187. Of these, 3905 occurred five times or oftener. This book became the model for the word lists proposed by the Study about 1925.

The Study was able to profit by the experience and results of these earlier studies. Kaeding's list was, for instance, overweighted with military terms; and Henmon had excerpted too slight a number of running pages. The counts of vocabulary in grammars and elementary texts mentioned above and subsequent

[1] "A Study of Vocabularies of Eleven Spanish Grammars and Fifteen Spanish Reading Texts," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1925), pp. 1–14.

[2] "A Comparative Study of the Vocabularies of Sixteen French Textbooks," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Feb., 1927), pp. 263–290.

[3] "A Study of the First-Year German Vocabulary," *G.Q.*, Vol. 8 (May, 1935), pp. 119–128.

[4] *Reform Sprach-lernmethode* (Verlag für Zeitgemäsze Sprachmethodik, Munich). There had been one hundred editions of this book prior to 1922. See also by the same publisher *Methode Merthner*, of which there have been hundreds of editions in each of several languages.

[5] *Occasional Reports, No. 13* (Government of India, Calcutta; 1926).

[6] *A French Word Book, Based on a Running Count of 400,000 Words* (The University of Wisconsin Press, Madison; 1924).

oral and printed discussions had moreover revealed the opinions of teachers regarding the vocabulary need if the foreign language was to be used orally. The Study planned that its word books should serve as a basis for the preparation of new reading material and should guide teachers in their choice of vocabulary to be drilled, reviewed, or learned in some way. The question of whether a purely reading or a reading-speaking vocabulary should be evolved was discussed at length in modern-language meetings and furnished many ideas for the revision of the Study's word lists.

Milton A. Buchanan, to whom the Study assigned the making of a Spanish word book,[1] was the first to finish his task. It represents a frequency count of 1,200,000 words found in forty units of prose and verse. The list was made with the aid of a small group of students and graduates of the University of Toronto. In his introduction Buchanan gives an account of previous attempts to produce a Spanish word book, describes the technique employed in his work, and lists the texts excerpted. In Part One are given 189 words which were assumed to occur so frequently as to make it unnecessary to count the number of times they appeared. In Part Two 6702 words are arranged in order of merit; that is, in an order arrived at by statistical combining of the numbers of units in which they were found and their total frequency. Part Three gives the words in alphabetical order with indication of frequency, range, and merit.

A German word book was developed by B. Q. Morgan,[2] who describes how the list was chosen from Kaeding's list, which is based on a count of nearly eleven million running words. The 2402 words of Morgan's list are those occurring two hundred or more times in Kaeding. They are now arranged in eighty-five

[1] *Graded Spanish Word Book*, published by the University of Toronto Press in 1929.

[2] *German Frequency Word Book* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1928).

groups with frequency of each word indicated. List B contains an alphabetical list of six thousand words including the 2402 of List A, together with words derived from them.

A French word book was made by G. E. Van der Beke [1] with the collaboration of ninety-six school and college teachers of French, who checked eighty-five units of prose, fiction, plays, newspaper articles, history, science, and miscellaneous writings. Texts which had been checked for Henmon's word book were not checked again, but Henmon's results were included. The arrangement resembles that of the other word books, with the exception of the features resulting from using Henmon's findings.

Idioms are more troublesome to learn than single words, since there is no way of guessing their meanings except from context, and even this is frequently unreliable. For example, *Il faut dire* means literally, "It must say"; *Er will reich sein*, "He wishes to be rich." In both cases the literal translation is either nonsensical or incorrect. The learner has accordingly only the foreign-language-English equivalence as found in the dictionary to fall back on in learning idioms. The teacher might, if time permitted, keep on using the foreign idiom until the learner gets the proper associations formed through hearing and practice, as the child does in his native language. The student would finally know that "when crossing the Atlantic, I fell in with an old friend" does not mean "I fell into the ocean." Sufficient practice to achieve this understanding of the mass of foreign idioms is out of the question, however, unless oral use is the objective, but even if only reading is the objective the teacher may, as in the case of hard words, resort to defining the idiom in the foreign language or to incorporating it in a foreign sentence, as *Er will reich sein heiszt, Er sagt dasz er reich ist; Il faut dire signifie* "one must say."

Idioms presented a problem to students of the subject even more puzzling than the word lists. Even to define an idiom proved difficult. It was finally defined as an expression peculiar

[1] *French Word Book* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

to a language, or an expression differing in form from its English sense equivalent. This definition served as a basis for the Study's idiom lists.

Idiom lists had been made by Becker and Mora, Payen-Payne, Tindall, et al., but the first counts were undertaken by committees of New York City high-school teachers. Spanish lists were published in *El Eco;* the French in *Le Petit Journal*.[1]

Making of the various idiom lists was assigned by the Study to various individuals, and the assignees, each supported by a group of collaborators, went to work. H. Keniston was the first to finish his book.[2] With eighty-four collaborators from secondary schools and colleges he counted one hundred units of text — a million running words from modern prose, fiction, drama, newspaper, technical, and miscellaneous prose. The idioms are listed after their key words in order of range of occurrence; in each case the frequency number and English equivalent are given. Part A contains 786 idioms; Parts B, C, D, E, and F list respectively compound conjunctions, compound prepositions, reflexive verbs, verbs requiring a preposition before a complement, verbs requiring no preposition or adverb — a total of 605 items. Finally there follows an alphabetical list of the idioms. Correlations with words in Buchanan's *Graded Spanish Word Book* are given.

E. F. Hauch with forty-six school and college collaborators produced the *German Idiom List*.[3] They counted fifty-seven units of text — over a million running words — of eighteenth-, nineteenth-, and twentieth-century prose. Texts excerpted are listed in the Introduction, as they are in the two other idiom lists. First a "sequential list" gives 959 idioms with their frequency. Next follows an alphabetical list of the same, with range, frequency, and English equivalents.

[1] Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., Garden City, New York; 1927.
[2] *Spanish Idiom List* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).
[3] The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929.

F. D. Cheydleur, with eighty-five collaborators, is responsible for the *French Idiom List*,[1] which is based on a count of 1,183,000 running words. The Introduction gives an overview of previous idiom studies and describes the technique used. Eighty-seven units of prose were excerpted. Correlations of range and frequencies with Henmon's *French Word Book* are given. The arrangement is analogous to that of the *Spanish Idiom List*.

Although teachers were in general pleased with the idiom lists, they had much fault to find with the word lists. This criticism evolved from a question of teaching methods and objectives. It came chiefly from those who want a speaking-reading, not a purely reading, vocabulary. Also it was urged that our present-day reading texts had a vocabulary different from that of the lists, but that these texts had to be mastered. R. D. Cole showed that popular French elementary texts contained a great number of words not found in Van der Beke's book.[2] It was also contended that because of the character of the texts used in making the word lists some of them were overweighted with certain kinds of words — military, legalistic, etc. — and underweighted with others. There was also criticism of the way in which Morgan had used Kaeding's frequencies and of the unpedagogical features of Buchanan's *Graded Spanish Word Book*. Pedagogical purposes, it was stated, call for special arrangement and treatment, but C. E. Young [3] went to bat for the lists, pointing out that they were made from reading material for reading purposes, and V. A. C. Henmon [4] wrote in the same vein. New York City indicated its loyalty to standard word lists by giving references to them in its syllabus, even though the teachers in the system had earlier produced a list of their own.

[1] The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929.

[2] "Selecting French Readers," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 17 (April, 1932), pp. 42–45.

[3] "Concerning Word Lists," *W.B.*, No. 95 (Feb., 1932), pp. 2-4.

[4] "The Vocabulary Problem in Modern Foreign Languages," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (Feb., 1930), pp. 33–39.

But out of all the controversy there developed a widely held conviction that pedagogical purposes called for special arrangement and presentation of the word and idiom lists. Demand grew for a revision of the lists. This demand led to the publication of practical lists by H. Meyer [1] and by C. M. Purin.[2] The latter includes two thousand words and idioms chosen from the existing lists and is designed for teaching purposes. Almost simultaneously other individuals or committees of associations went to work to set up the sort of lists demanded. H. Keniston published his *A Basic List of Spanish Words and Idioms* [3] based on existing word and idiom lists, including his own. It contains 1592 main entry words and idioms, is well arranged, practical, and deservedly popular. H. H. Arnold [4] pointed out, however, that a great many common idioms were not found in this list.

Vail [5] compared the various German word lists and pointed to the need for a list of words gleaned from the vocabularies of the most popular German readers and grammars. He also separated the first- and second-year lists, and recommended the addition of more words referring to the pupil's environment.

The revision of the German word list — idioms are not included — was elaborated by a committee of the American Association of Teachers of German.[6] It is a development of the Kaeding-Morgan and Wadepuhl lists, and contains 1000 words designated as first-year and 1150 more as second-year vocabulary. In

[1] *The 1000 Most Frequent German Words* (Oxford University Press, New York; 1931).

[2] *A Standard Vocabulary of 2000 Words and Idioms* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1931).

[3] University of Chicago Press; 1933.

[4] "A List of Graded Vocabularies and a Method of Grading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (May, 1932), pp. 644–655.

[5] *Syllabus of Minima in Modern Foreign Languages* (Board of Education, New York; 1931).

[6] "Minimum Standard Vocabulary for German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 7 (May, 1934), pp. 87–119. This glossary is also available for 90 cents in dictionary form from F. S. Crofts and Company, New York.

addition there are nearly two thousand derivatives arranged under their root words. Two thousand of the words were taken from Morgan-Kaeding, two small groups of environmental words from Purin's and from Vail's lists. College students are supposed to master the 1000 basic words in one year and the 2150 in two. While the committee does not claim perfection for this list, it is a very good one and should be used by every secondary and college teacher of German.

Omitted from the revisions of the German and the French word lists are the numerals, names of months and days, and the pronouns, because they are probably learned as a matter of course. These omissions really increase the words to be learned with the lists by this much. There has been some consideration of a minimum speaking vocabulary in the revisions of the French and German word lists, and what were considered the most important items in such vocabularies were included.[1]

The Association of Modern Language Teachers of the Central West and South in 1931 appointed a committee of five, headed by J. B. Tharp, to work out a revision of the French word and idiom lists. Its labors paralleled those of the committee on the German list. As this list stands today,[2] it contains 2752 words and idioms. The latter item is especially welcome to teachers, as the pamphlet now contains the entire standard word and idiom vocabulary. It also contains five short lists of environmental words, and a few other words additional to those of Van der Beke's *French Word Book*.

[1] On the question of speaking vocabulary as contrasted with a reading vocabulary see M. West, "The Present Position in Vocabulary Selection for Foreign-Language Teachers," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 433–437; also M. West, "Speaking Vocabulary in a Foreign Language (1000 words)," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (April, 1930), pp. 509–521.

[2] "A Basic French Vocabulary," to be had of the *M.L.J.* (Banta Publishing Company, Menasha, Wisconsin) for 25 cents. A dictionary arrangement of this list is also available: J. B. Tharp's *Basic French Vocabulary* (Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York; 1939). A similar dictionary is J. A. Landry's *Graded French Word and Idiom Book* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1938).

The Study did not undertake an Italian word book, but L. H. Skinner of Miami University undertook the making of one to serve practical purposes. This list of about three thousand words [1] is made up of the vocabulary of all Italian school texts supplied with glossaries that had been published up to that time in the United States. The total number of texts excerpted was forty-five — twenty grammars, composition books, and readers, and twenty-five reading texts. This is an eminently valuable list which every teacher of Italian should know. The English equivalents are not given. Supplying these makes excellent exercises for the class.

We may add here also for the benefit of Italian teachers J. M. Knease's *An Italian Word List from Literary Sources*,[2] based on a count of 400,000 words. This work should be enlarged, perfected, and made more generally available and familiar to teachers.

MATERIALS FOR WORD STUDY

There are available for teachers, in addition to the word and idiom lists, various items of interest and value. Students' vocabulary notebooks are frequently useful. I. H. B. Spiers long ago produced one of these, a *Notebook of Modern Languages*.[3] Ruth Kennedy [4] suggests that there should be three descriptive captions in such notebooks kept by the student — grammatical, linguistic, and cultural — so that he may classify the data he gathers. J. D. Diehl showed how individual differences can be provided for through the student notebook.[5]

[1] "A Comparative Study of the Vocabularies of Forty-Five Italian Textbooks," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Nov., 1935), pp. 67–80. To be had as a separate pamphlet from L. H. Skinner (Oxford, Ohio) for 25 cents.

[2] Master of Arts thesis, University of Iowa; 1931 (Published by the Toronto University Press, Toronto, Canada. $1.00).

[3] D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1915.

[4] "Organization in the Spanish Notebook," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1927), pp. 207–212.

[5] "Individual Differences and Notebook Work in Modern Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 1 (Nov., 1916), pp. 52–58.

Flash cards for drilling words and phrases are available.[1] A. F. Gianella writes of their use.[2] "Verb pads" are also available from several of the regular modern-language publishers. These contain blank-space exercises on verbs and are of use, depending upon the teaching objectives sought. We must note that this device drills words in isolation and not in context.

E. F. Engel has elaborated for publication his popular "Laboratory Method" of learning German vocabulary.[3] He uses an eclectic vocabulary taken chiefly from the standard word and idiom lists.

P. Hagboldt [4] has an excellent booklet on word study for teaching purposes. He here reveals himself a real teacher and may help others to make the language class as stimulating and effective as he himself must have made it. Specific exercises are described for realizing some of the teaching aims indicated in this chapter. A valuable article on the *Fremdwort* in German is that of T. Schreiber,[5] which is useful even for seasoned teachers. Dorothy Buck [6] gives excellent suggestions for acquisition of Spanish vocabulary. Sophia Hubman [7] describes devices for acquisition of a German vocabulary, as does Edith Salmans [8] for Spanish. Both these follow the lines of exercise development suggested above in this chapter. H. Walpole has written a very solid article on the question of word counts and vocabulary.[9]

[1] Universal Publishing Company, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

[2] "The Use of Flash Cards for Drill in French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 1 (Dec., 1916), pp. 96–99.

[3] To be had of E. F. Engel, Lawrence, Kansas.

[4] *Building the German Vocabulary* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1928).

[5] "Vom Fremdwort in Deutschen Unterricht," *G.Q.*, Vol. 4 (Nov., 1931), pp. 160–168.

[6] "Building Vocabulary," *H.*, Vol. 11 (March, 1928), pp. 62–165.

[7] "The Business of Getting a Vocabulary," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Dec., 1924), pp. 159–166.

[8] "A Practical Spanish Vocabulary," *H.*, Vol. 4 (March, 1921), pp. 80–85.

[9] "The Theory of Definition and Its Application to Vocabulary Limitation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 398–403.

PROBLEMS FOR STUDY

1. Prepare, and teach before the class on methods, a portion of easy text, using repeatedly the six standard means of conveying the meanings of the words of the language being studied.

2. Write out twenty original definitions in the foreign language, ranging in order from easy to very difficult.

3. Prepare a list of twenty-five partial and twenty-five deceptive cognates in one of the modern foreign languages.

4. Prepare etymological groups of from fifteen to twenty-five words each in one foreign language.

5. Write the English equivalent after each French idiom in the Alphabetical Index beginning on page 109 of Cheydleur's *French Idiom List;* or after each German idiom in the Sequential List beginning on page 15 of Hauch's *German Idiom List;* or after each Spanish idiom in the Alphabetical Index on page 77 of Keniston's *Spanish Idiom List.*

Chapter Eight

Development of Reading Ability

THE term "reading" has come, in the field of education, to connote the process of learning to interpret printed language. The development of this process has become a specialized science as a result of fundamental studies that have been made of the steps by which children learn to read in the vernacular and of the growth of a science of exact measurement of reading ability.[1]

The findings of these studies we will not discuss here except to summarize the most important of them concerning the process of learning to read the native language. The chief obstacles to this process, it has been demonstrated, are first those that lie within the student himself — (1) low intelligence; (2) defects in hearing, seeing, and general physical condition; (3) narrow range of experience and knowledge because of low home environment — and, second, certain factors in the teaching plan: (1) inadequate teaching materials; (2) teaching methods that fail to provide ample, varied, and pleasurable reading experience stimulating to effective effort; (3) failure to set and to keep before the student proper goals or to furnish reading materials of proper difficulty and of sufficient variety and interest to forestall loss of interest; and (4) failure to diagnose individual weaknesses and needs.

These factors will be found to operate in learning to read a

[1] Among these the following are outstanding: W. S. Gray's "Research in Constructing the Elementary School Curriculum," *Third Year Book of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association* (1926), pp. 152–204; Gray's *Remedial Cases in Reading, Their Diagnosis and Treatment* (Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 22, University of Chicago Press, 1922); G. F. Buswell's *Fundamental Reading Habits, A Study of Their Development* (Supplementary Educational Monograph No. 21, University of Chicago Press, 1922); E. Spendiaroff's "On the Significance of the Eye Movements in the Reading of Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Nov., 1928), pp. 132–134.

foreign language as well as in reading the vernacular. Where those inherent in the pupil are present, the pupil should not be attempting study of a foreign language. Where the pupil's deficiencies in fundamental reading skills have evolved from the second group of factors, he should ideally be given remedial instruction in the vernacular before he attempts to read a second language. Whether or not training in the fundamental reading skills has been adequate, the foreign-language teacher must see to it that in his plan there appear none of the factors that impede the most effective development of reading ability.

OPERATIONS INVOLVED IN READING

We may indicate here certain reading difficulties that have special importance in the foreign-language class and that must be specifically recognized and guarded against by the foreign-language teacher. Among these are a wrong "mind set" occasioned by preoccupation with English, poor perception habits, or the fact that the task makes unreasonable demands on the student's knowledge of the vocabulary or constructions of the language. A past record of inadequate training and bad habits in reading is not necessarily an insuperable obstacle to the language teacher who knows how to enlist the best mental efforts of his pupils on each task as it comes along.

No special instruction or training in regard to fundamental reading habits should be necessary in the foreign-language class. Correct reading habits on the part of foreign-language students may generally be assumed, and the modern-language teacher will then merely have to see to it that these habits are transferred to reading in the new language. The chief trouble of the students will be to get the meanings of words, phrases, and sentences in the new language. But the operations involved in reading must be carefully studied by the teacher who would develop a successful method of teaching a foreign language. Those fundamental to the process of reading in the vernacular as well as certain others

inherent in learning to apply reading skill to a foreign language must be thoughtfully considered by him.

M. West [1] has analyzed reading into the following processes, for all of which elementary instruction in any language, native or foreign, must provide: word recognition, word interpretation, synthesis, grouping, skimming, repression of speech by insistence on speed. In another place West emphasizes the need for training in different types of reading exercise; he states that the ideal teaching method in a foreign language should yield the ability to read intensively for complete understanding as well as for a quick overview of content.[2] These and comments by various other students of the subject call attention to the fact that learning to read either the vernacular or a foreign language involves a wide variety of processes, purposes, and points of view. It is in no case merely a simple process of learning to recognize graphic symbols.

Satisfactory reading habits in any language will certainly comprise more than ability to reproduce orally or in writing the words on the page, and incidentally, they will not in any way be dependent on ability to do this or to give exhaustive analysis of the grammatical forms encountered. Real reading ability will also comprise more than mere skill in translating from the foreign language into the vernacular. One who reads a foreign language with any degree of success must be able to grasp meanings, interpret suggestions, detect the writers' intentions on any level of vocabulary, idiom, syntax difficulty. The aim in and the process of reading the foreign language must finally come to be the same as the aims and processes involved in reading the vernacular. Ideas rather than words must emerge from the page. The foreign literature must become as directly as the vernacular a medium of interpreting human experience, and classroom activity must contribute to this end.

[1] *Language in Education* (Longmans, Green & Co., New York; 1929).

[2] "The Problem of Weaning in Reading a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (April, 1931), pp. 481–489.

Activities that have been variously proposed to provide training in the foreign-language course in all the operations normally involved in reading evidence a great lack of clear thinking on the part of writers. An illustration of this fact is the phrase "reading for oral and aural use," which has been used to suggest an important exercise in foreign-language teaching. The activity indicated is obviously not a simple operation but involves various others, such as "reading for pronunciation, intonation, and fluency." In the same way the proposed drill on "reading to practice inference" involves such various other operations as "reading for vocabulary expansion" and "reading to practice literal translation." "Silent reading in class" similarly involves the need for "vocabulary expansion" or vocabulary review. "Reading aloud," which is frequently listed as a distinct operation, is obviously an element in the activity of oral reading. "Reading for grammatical analysis," which is sometimes proposed, is not really training in reading at all, but merely a kind of grammar drill that makes use of reading material. The development of sound method demands more thoughtful analysis of these processes than is evident in all these suggestions.

A. Coleman lists what he considers essential elements in an effective method of teaching reading: (1) pronunciation on a phonetic basis; (2) oral work in early stages of study; (3) attainment as speedily as possible of an adequate recognition vocabulary of high-frequency words; (4) extensive reading; (5) progressive elimination of the habit of translation; (6) some grammar analysis, although only a recognition knowledge is required; (7) spoken use of the foreign language in the classroom.[1]

THE SHIFT FROM TRANSLATION TO REAL READING

Although reading a foreign language must mean translating up to the time when the student has acquired a sufficient vocab-

[1] "A New Approach to Practice in Reading a Modern Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Nov., 1930), pp. 101–118.

ulary to read normally, the danger of continuing translation methods of reading is widely recognized. The aim of the teaching plan must be to break from translation methods at the earliest possible moment. J. Greenberg [1] considers translation methods part of a system that succeeds in teaching facts about a language rather than teaching the language itself.

Buswell [2] found that the adolescent subjects in his experiment had effective habits and satisfactory eye movements in reading a foreign language only insofar as they had been taught by a real reading method, not by a grammar-translation method. F. L. Fehling [3] also discusses the danger of this "one-dimensional" reading.

Interlinear translations or similar devices have recently acquired some vogue. They seek to facilitate progress from translation to real reading in the foreign language. Some reading texts also provide exercises on paraphrasing which, used in small quantities at the beginning of the course, are very helpful, especially with mature students, in encouraging the shift from translation to sound reading habits.

We may note here that the same effect may be gained in another way in small classes of up to approximately a dozen students. After pronunciation has been taught intensively for several periods, interspersed with activities designed to arouse interest in and create atmosphere for the course, translating in simplified texts is begun, the class translating in chorus. The class must sit close on either side and in front of the instructor and translate literally and distinctly, but in a low voice and in a steady, slow tempo. In this way the instructor is able to recognize individual mistakes. This method has several definite merits: (1) it is

[1] "Comments on Recent Trends in Language Study," *F.R.*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1936), pp. 19–23.

[2] *A Laboratory Study of Reading of Modern Foreign Languages* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1927).

[3] "One-Dimensional Reading," *G.Q.*, Vol. 8 (Nov., 1935), pp. 151–154.

economical of class and teacher time; (2) it stimulates the weaker students; (3) it keeps all working at their fullest powers; (4) it enables the entire class to get a correct translation of the entire assignment. Not only may recitation of previously assigned and prepared material be conducted in this way but also the development of new reading matter.

But the most important single factor in effecting the shift from translating to reading is extensive practice in rapid reading for thought, a process incompatible with a translation method of reading. Exercises that stimulate and test comprehension of considerable units of thought help to insure that reading is for thought, that attention is focused on the content rather than the mechanics of expression. Extensive reading requirement will insure adequate practice in this habit, without which there can be no proper development of skill. For only as the student reads increasingly difficult material in ample quantity does the habit of translation disappear, and this it then does naturally. None of us became fluent in reading English through the small amount of reading that we did in school, but only when we read extensively on our own. Our students will best learn to read the foreign language in the same way. Extensive reading encourages a concept and technique of reading for thought, not for construction; of reading to the end of a paragraph or page without stopping; of passing by a non-inferable word altogether if the general sense of the passage is clear without it; of rereading the whole selection carefully after going quickly through it once for the general meaning without looking up unknown words. All these skills must be specifically discussed by the teacher with the class and practice given in them.

It is also a natural consequence of continued and ample exercise in reading that vocabulary grows and the habit of quickly inferring meanings of new words from context or their obvious relationship to known words, English or foreign, is formed. Insofar as one knows or can infer the meanings of words, translation

methods disappear naturally. Only when interpretation of a passage depends on understanding words to which the student has no clue must the method of unraveling the meaning be one of translation. If the student reads a considerable sequence of words that he knows or can infer before he meets one word that he cannot make out, he is reading instead of translating. To bring this about is the object of reading considerable amounts in simple texts and of proceeding to more difficult ones only gradually.

A question of importance in its effect on the method of training for reading skills in a foreign language is the best number of rereadings for the student.[1] We have no experimental data on this problem but studies in fields that may perhaps be considered analogous indicate that one reading is not sufficient. We know, however, that rereading is likely to be monotonous and therefore uninteresting and lacking in learning value; so we need to supply changed objectives to freshen the point of view and the method of rereading. If, for example, the first reading is for general content, to be done without looking up unfamiliar words, the second may be for discovering specific meanings, a task requiring understanding of all words. We know also that recency of impression is important and so advise that first preparation of material is done early enough to allow time for a rereading shortly before recall is to be needed — in class recitation, test, or any other situation. Performing exercises in class on the content of the reading provides additional review and helps to fix the content and form of the reading in mind.

Another important factor in the development of reading skill is grammar work. Enough study of grammar, it is certain, should be included in the class work on reading material to enable

[1] E. Skaggs and S. Grossman, "The Optimum Number of Readings before Introducing Reading-Prompting in Verbatim Learning," *Archives of Psychology*, Vol. 18, No. 114 (1930). The best number is reported as three; one is too few, and seven too many.

the pupil to recognize accurately the grammatical forms he encounters in his reading. It is patent that if the forms are not to be used actively in speaking or writing, but only passively in reading, a comparatively slight amount of grammar study is necessary. J. B. Tharp and E. Murray showed that college freshmen can learn in one year to read French with practically no knowledge of grammar.[1] The grammatical knowledge necessary for reading skill has been specifically indicated on pages 153–154 of Chapter Six. This should be taught only as various specific needs arise and not *en bloc* nor before any reading practice is begun. A complete grammar text is consequently not needed in the course devoted to development of reading skill.

It is important for teachers also to consider the role that vocalization will play in their teaching of reading skills. The value of aural-oral exercise for the pupil is much debated and in any event will depend largely on the total objectives aimed at in the course. Where speaking ability is a desideratum, it will of course be well to vocalize the reading material much more than where only silent-reading skill is aimed at. Some proponents of the new reading method recommend an aural approach to the language,[2] but J. B. Tharp [3] has demonstrated by experiment that this method does not contribute to the development of mature reading habits. It seems certain, however, that even though aural-oral work does not directly encourage silent-reading ability, it will enrich the reading lesson and the skills derived from it and so should be used insofar as it does not interfere with attainment of the major objective.

[1] "Grammarless Reading of Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Feb., 1928), pp. 385–390.

[2] Helen M. Eddy, "Instruction in Foreign Languages," *National Survey of Secondary Education* (United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, Government Printing Office; 1932). See also Laura Johnson, "Oral Work as a Prerequisite to Reading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (April, 1931), pp. 490–501.

[3] "Effect of Oral-Aural Ability on Scholastic Achievement in Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Oct., 1930), pp. 10–26.

Classroom exercises on the content of the reading lessons are bound to provide considerable aural-oral exercise throughout the year. If pronunciation is properly taught, numerous direct-method exercises done, and if the teacher asks the questions on content of the reading in the foreign language, the class will get all the aural training they need. At first their conversation may be in English, but gradually the best students will try to answer in the foreign language, until a large part of the class has acquired the habit. The weakest students, however, may never be able to use the foreign language in this way.

The practice of giving first attention in the language course to the attainment of correct pronunciation is valuable in a reading method as in any other, for reading lessons provide rich opportunity to improve pronunciation by vocalization with no loss, and some possible gain, in the development of reading skills.

Factual quizzing on the actual content of the assignment is an exercise that has value on elementary levels and as preliminary to later development in the class period of more thoughtful analysis of the material read. It also has value in developing a facility with the words, idioms, and syntactical constructions of the text. The types of questions that may be asked may be conveniently grouped about eight grammatical principles: (1) questions concerning the subject of sentences: *Qui viendra? Wer sagt es? ¿Quién contesto bien?* (2) questions concerning the direct object: *Qu'est-ce qu'on a dit? Was hat er gebracht? ¿Qué hablo?* (3) questions concerning the verb: *Qu'est-ce qu'elle a fait? Was tat er? ¿Qué hago?* (4) questions concerning the indirect object: *De qui parle-t-on? Wem dankte er? ¿A quién dijo yo?* (5) questions concerning the adverb of time: *Quand viendra-t-il? Wann kam er? ¿Cuándo fué?* (6) questions concerning the adverb of place: *D'où vient-il? Wo stand er? ¿Dónde estoy?* (7) questions concerning the adverb of manner: *Comment l'a-t-il fait? Wie sprach er? ¿Cómo contestó?* (8) questions concerning the complement:

Comment a-t-il fait le soulier? Wie machte er die Stube? ¿Cómo hago los zapatos? There is another possible classification of questions, that regarding the adverb of degree: How fast? How well?

Classes can readily be taught to write such type-questions themselves. They can then be put on the board, corrected, and copied by the class for answering as homework. Or some students may put them on the board and others may answer them at the board or orally.

CLASSROOM EXERCISE IN READING

As has already been suggested, the first aim of classroom exercise on reading material should be to focus attention on and arouse interest in its thought content. Such exercise will be designed to encourage individual interpretation of and opinion on the ideas of the text. It will center about free discussion of independent reactions to the material read. If such discussion is to be effective, there must be created a situation in which inhibition is largely removed and the student has a real desire to express himself. This can be done if the teacher has thoughtfully studied the text to discover what interesting ideas are contained in it and then has thought out simple but stimulating questions to get the discussion started. Where this discussion is carried on in the foreign language, it must be based strictly on the vocabulary of the text and make no other demands on linguistic abilities that are not fully developed. The pupils' whole concern must be with thought content rather than form of expression. The teacher can in this way get the best students started in natural and pleasant discussion, in which the weaker and more backward students will gradually also wish to express themselves. Chapter Nine offers in considerable detail suggestions for developing discussion of this sort.

Discussion of the reading done will be more effective where pupils can be grouped according to ability. In the poorer sections the discussion then can be carried on in English. In the

faster sections, discussion should be carried on in the foreign language. Where facilities of the teacher and time are ample, this discussion may then also provide valuable aural and oral exercise.

In a mixed section work at the board or other written work should be provided for those who cannot take part in an oral discussion in the foreign language. This will probably be about half the class. The very poorest can do translating on paper, which toward the end of the hour can be corrected by the better students and handed back to the students who did it. The fair students may write and answer questions at the board, or answer in writing at the board without referring to the reading text foreign-language questions provided in the book. These answers may, toward the end of the hour, be corrected by the teacher and returned. This work occupies the poorer students of the class except for the time taken to correct their work and to develop the new assignment. For a good share of the hour the teacher is, therefore, free to discuss the text with the better half of the class in the foreign language.

There are often times when drill on vocabulary or grammar forms may be combined with class recitation on the reading assignment. Recent reading texts generally supply direct-method and new-type exercises that achieve this purpose. If the text in use does not, the teacher should have no difficulty, by following the principles and specific suggestions on the subject to be found in Chapter Four, in constructing true-false questions, exercises on cognates and identicals, or questions on content that develop knowledge of words and constructions.

Quizzing for English equivalents of important or difficult words in the assignment is a valuable exercise as it not only drills on vocabulary but necessitates that the student reread the material very speedily. The use of teaching methods of inferring meanings through cognates, derivatives, and the like is also an important part of developing reading skills, as has already been indicated.

AMOUNT OF READING

The amount of reading done by foreign-language pupils is another important factor in the development of reading ability.[1] Testing programs show that the best results in reading were produced in classes in which a great quantity of reading had been done. Large amounts of reading cannot be suddenly decreed and attained, though; there must be a gradual increase in amount from year to year and a standard of voluminous reading slowly established in the minds of administrators and students.

Secondary-school teachers working under less than ideal conditions should not feel alarmed by their inability to cover the great quantity of reading advised by some enthusiasts. The large amounts reported were done under favorable conditions of administrative, teacher, and student facilities and are not the criterion for average conditions. Besides, we must remember that the great amounts reported always include a good deal of outside and voluntary reading, which will involve few demands on class time.

Extensive reading may be introduced through the use of a good supplementary book on an easier level of difficulty than the textbook material being used at the time. If specific assignments in this are made for outside reading, they should be two or three times as extensive as the regular reading assignment prepared for class discussion. Some teachers prefer letting pupils follow their individual interests and tastes in reading outside class rather than making specific assignment. But in any case the material read should be definitely easier than that used for class discussion. Ease and facility are essential to wide reading.

[1] O. F. Bond, "The Organization and Administration of a First-Year French Course at the College Level," *Studies in Secondary Education*, Vol. 2 (University of Chicago; 1925), pp. 177–200. Rowland Durbin, "Rate and Quantity in the First Year's Extensive Reading in College French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (Dec., 1934), pp. 181–186. Also Durbin's "Some Results of Free Choice in Extensive Reading in French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1936), pp. 471–476.

There is a variety of ways of stimulating extensive reading among pupils and of checking on this and granting credit for it. Some teachers do not test outside reading, assuming that students will read for the pleasure of it. Such a situation is ideal, and should be developed as often as possible. Most schools, however, do test and some grant extra credit for outside reading. Testing may be by a class test if the teacher's load is too heavy for individual conferences with pupils. A handy method of checking on outside reading which is not felt onerous and is still effective is the use of a mimeographed blank such as was in use for years in Miami University. This calls for a very brief statement of contents and a short note on the value the book had for the student. The teacher must decide on the plan that seems best suited to his circumstances. Even if the class as a whole is asked to do outside reading voluntarily, with or without testing, the best students should, in addition, be given special stimulation to read independently without consideration for school credit.

Good students will usually read voluntarily if the teacher will offer them open library shelves and long-time loans of material directly related to their natural tastes and interests. If a school cannot afford to buy foreign-language literature amply, a rental collection may be found feasible. By buying reasonably priced books and increasing the supply as rental fees accumulate, a satisfactory collection can in time be built up.

Several hundred selected teachers replying to the Study's questionnaire reported pages of reading done as follows: [1]

	French		German		Spanish	
	Class Work	Supplementary	Class Work	Supplementary	Class Work	Supplementary
Third year	270–275	6–200	166–170	46–100	176–180	36–90
Fourth year	300–325	30–250	196–200	25–130	196–200	35–155

[1] Coleman, *op. cit.*, page 122.

The amounts read in pages according to bulletins issued by state departments of education and tabulated by the writer are as follows, fifteen states being represented in the data on the first two years and nine in the data on the third and fourth years:

	German	Spanish	French
First year	90	100	115
Second year	190	200	275
Third year	325	370	400
Fourth year	500	500	500

The amounts have no doubt been increased since these were reported, as there has been a strong tendency to increase amounts of reading. The fact that the quantity of reading done in German is smaller than that in the other languages may be accounted for by the tendency among teachers of German to lay considerably more stress on grammar and speaking than do teachers of other languages.

SELECTION OF TEXTS

One of the teacher's most important tasks is to select proper reading material for his class and for the school set-up in which he finds himself. Unfortunately this most expert job is often left to an inexpert board of education. However, since the superintendent is a member of the board, the teacher can frequently achieve his ends through him. Today when improvements in reading texts are being made on the basis of word and idiom frequency lists and new testing techniques, continuous change to better materials is very important. Some boards of education should undoubtedly change their methods of purchasing books, and some teachers must also spend more time in getting acquainted with recent materials and learn effective ways of appraising them.

Two considerations of almost equal importance in the selection of reading texts are the character of their content and their difficulty.

Reading materials must, especially at the outset of language study, be easy; they must be carefully gauged to the student's capacity. Vocabulary, idiom, and syntax difficulty must be carefully considered in selecting a reading text.

The value of a standard vocabulary — that is, one developed from word-frequency lists — is evidenced by the fact that the experiments with the new reading method described in Chapter Three gave superior results that study showed to be attributable to the use of the standard vocabulary employed in the books.

In order that progress in reading may be steady, it is necessary that a proper word, idiom, and syntax density be maintained throughout the text. That is, new forms must be introduced at a certain rate per thousand of running words. Just what the best rate is is not yet fully established, but the principle is being employed in preparing new-style texts.

In such texts words and idioms recur again and again, although texts now available do not provide for a specified number of repetitions. Müller and Pilzecker found that in general twelve repetitions of any form were necessary to establish it in the pupil's mind. The words in the first part of the text are taken, say, from the first five hundred words of the frequency list, those in the second part from the first thousand, and so on. Idioms are introduced in the same way.

How can we judge the vocabulary difficulty of texts? The writer invented a simple method that can be easily used where the book is furnished with a glossary.[1] Estimate the words in the glossary by multiplying the number in one column by the number of columns. Divide the total of words by the number

[1] See C. H. Handschin, *Methods of Teaching Modern Languages*, pp. 132–133, for a refinement of this method.

of pages in the text, thus finding the average number of new words per page. This method is of course truly reliable only if all the words of the text are included in the glossary, as is customary in elementary texts. It will, however, give a rough measure of the vocabulary difficulty of any text. Since the publication of the word lists, it has been possible to check the vocabulary difficulty of reading texts against these.

M. West furnished the idea of substituting high-frequency words for those of low frequency in literary selections that were desirable for classroom use with a view to making them usable with students not at home in the language. As frequency lists of words and idioms are more generally available and usable, such simplifications of literary texts will be made in increasing numbers. Frequency lists of syntactical constructions now in process of development will further still more this process of adapting literary materials to low levels of reading ability.

A quite different simplification of texts is that worked out by O. Koischwitz and A. W. Hurd.[1] This consists of paraphrasing the text in practically the same vocabulary but in simplified construction.

Meno Spann[2] appends to his books interlinear paraphrases of the foreign text and exercises on these paraphrases. Both these procedures are eminently practical.

Reports of study of the vocabulary difficulty of several French and Spanish texts are now available. Johnson[3] studied the vocabularies of thirty-seven French texts by reference to Henmon's *French Word Book*[4] and gave the number of uncommon words

[1] "Experimental Application of the Interpretative Reading Method," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 17 (March, 1935), pp. 92–96.

[2] *Interlinear German Readers* (University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill; 1937). For interlinear translations see also the catalogues of Harper & Brothers and D. C. Heath & Co.

[3] C. L. Johnson, "Vocabulary Difficulty and Textbook Selection," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Feb., 1927), pp. 290–297.

[4] *French Word Book*, University of Wisconsin, Bureau of Educational Research Bulletin No. 3 (1924).

per thousand. Cole [1] checked nine elementary texts similarly against the later Van der Beke *French Word Book*.[2] H. H. Arnold [3] compared the vocabularies of eighty-seven Spanish texts with the Buchanan *Graded Spanish Word Book*.[4] Coleman [5] studied the findings of three master's theses, two studies of vocabularies of French texts [6] and two of Spanish texts.[7] The French texts covered by these studies were *Poudre aux yeux*, *Le grand Meaulnes*, *Le gendre de M. Poirier*, *Colomba*, *Sans famille*, *Hernani*, *Thaïs*, *Pecheur d'Island*, *Le voyage de M. Perrichon*, *L'Abbé Constantin*, *Les Oberlé*, *La mare au diable*, *Mon cher Tommy*, *Le tour du monde en 80 jours*, and Daudet's *Choix de contes*. A student who knows the 69 words of Part One of Van der Beke's *French Word Book* and the 2000 words of highest frequency knows 86.16 per cent to 92.75 per cent of the words in the foregoing lists of texts and should find any of them reasonably easy reading.

[1] "Selecting French Readers," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 17 (April, 1932), pp. 42–45.

[2] The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929.

[3] "List of Graded Vocabularies and a Method of Grading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (May, 1932), pp. 644–655.

[4] Short studies of vocabulary difficulty may be added here: M. Blackburn, "Analysis of the Vocabulary of Two French Grammars" (Cardon, published by Scribner, and Beziat-Deir, by Johnson), *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (May, 1930), pp. 431–440. M. Mullins and M. Stone, "Difficulty of Vocabulary and Sentence-Structure of Sixteen French Selections," *F.R.*, Vol. 6 (Nov., 1932), pp. 15–36; and "Consideration of Some Criteria for Textbook Selection," *F.R.*, Vol. 7 (May, 1934), pp. 471–480. E. Sears, "Vocabularies of Two Direct-Method French Grammars" (Bovee, published by Ginn, and de Sauzé, by Winston), *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (May, 1931), pp. 599–606. Florence M. Baker's scale for judging readers in her *The Teaching of French* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston; 1931).

[5] "A Basic Reading Vocabulary in French and Spanish," in *Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 219–243 (University of Chicago Press; 1934).

[6] M. A. Emery (unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago; 1932), and J. D. Haygood (unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago; 1932).

[7] G. S. Calbick (unpublished master's thesis, University of Chicago; 1932), and G. E. Wade and J. W. Banner (unpublished master's thesis, University of Tennessee; 1932).

The Spanish texts studied are *La Hermana San Sulpicio*, *Zaragüeta*, *El capitán Veneno*, Benevente's *Tres comedias*, Romera-Navarro's *José* and *Historia de España*, *Fortuna*, Hill and Buceta's *Antología de cuentos españolas* and *Marianela*, Wilkins' *New Spanish Reader for Beginners*, Isaacs' *María*, Caballero's *La gaviota*, Baroja's *Paradox rey;* Le Sage's *Gil Blas;* *Cuentos y leyendas* (published by Doubleday), *El libro de buen humor* (published by Holt), *Los mejores cuentos de Pardo Bazán* (published by Doubleday); Valle-Inclán's *Cara de plata*. A student who knows 189 words of Part One of Buchanan's *Graded Spanish Word Book* and the 2000 words listed as of highest frequency knows from 77 per cent to 95.61 per cent of the words of these texts.

A. Coleman [1] describes a master's thesis done at the University of Chicago and the unpublished work of another student which give valuable data about the number of French idioms and which ones are found prevalently in five French reading texts and in one respectively.

The first ten books of Hagboldt's *Graded German Readers* [2] contain 273 of the commonest German idioms.

The extent and the arrangement of the glossary, especially in a beginner's book, are other matters that deserve consideration.

New texts employ the old device of giving the English equivalent of new words at the bottom of the page on which they are first introduced. A full foreign-language-English vocabulary at the end of the book is unnecessary where this is done. E. H. Zeydel proposes to do away with special vocabularies in books used after the first year of college work and make use of a dictionary instead.[3]

Today when extensive reading is an objective of the foreign-language course and cost of books accordingly mounts up, the

[1] "A Minimum French Idiom List," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1937), pp. 569–577. See also H. J. Russel's *The Most Common Spanish Words and Idioms* (Oxford University Press, New York; 1937).

[2] D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

[3] "On Special Vocabularies," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (Jan., 1928), pp. 22–26.

advantage of reducing the cost of individual texts by omitting glossaries is obvious. This reason, as well as pedagogical ones relating to the new emphasis on habits of natural, interested, uninterrupted reading of large quantities of material, is exciting an interest in decreasing the editorial apparatus of the reading text.[1] All but the "easiest" words and phrases are usually given, though, with their English equivalents in a glossary at the end of the book; reference to the page where the word was first used is often given along with the English equivalent in beginners' books. Frequently all the words of the text are given.

The popularity of certain texts indicates that many teachers have found them useful and suitable. John Van Horne got together, on the basis of a statistical survey, a list of the French and Spanish texts most used in high school in the years 1918 to 1923.[2] Emma Reinhardt furnished a similar list for French,[3] and J. L. Kind for German.[4] John Hess [5] and W. Wadepuhl [6] list the texts most used in elementary German. Otto Koischwitz lists the texts most popular in third-year German.[7]

[1] Thorough airing of various phases of this question was given by A. W. Porterfield in "The Treatment of Vocabularies in Textbooks," *M.L.J.* Vol. 18 (April, 1934), pp. 451–459; E. Rose, "Vocabularies in German Textbooks," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Feb., 1933), pp. 334–341; G. L. Sharp, "German Textbook Vocabularies and a Supplementary Dictionary," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1936), pp. 157–161.

[2] "French Reading in Secondary Schools," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (March, 1924), pp. 363–368. "Spanish Reading in Secondary Schools," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (April, 1924), pp. 399–403. "Reading in First and Second Year College Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (Feb., 1924), pp. 261–265.

[3] "French Textbooks Used in Secondary Schools," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (March, 1928), pp. 446–451.

[4] "Some Phases of First and Second Year College German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 5 (Nov., 1932), pp. 178–187.

[5] "German Reading in Elementary Courses," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (March, 1926), pp. 337–344.

[6] "Elementary German in the Colleges," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (May, 1925), pp. 469–481.

[7] O. Koischwitz, "Zur deutschen Literaturgeschichte," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1929), pp. 50–55. See also same author, *ibid.*, Vol. 20, pp. 97–103.

In the final selection of reading materials we must, however, keep in mind that no statistical study can determine the essential and all-important quality of a book. We can count "mentions," "statements," "descriptions," etc., of certain elements of cultural knowledge, and we can tabulate words and expressions; but such study must inevitably fail to record the subtleties of an Anatole France, the deft humor of an Eichendorff, the adventuresome spirit of the old Spanish *conquistadores*, the high ethical essence of Goethe's *Iphigenie*, the mellow culture of a Dante, the something about a great work and a great man which makes ideas take root and grow to fruition in us.

TESTS OF READING ABILITY

It should also be kept in mind that although the comparatively new science of measurements can be brought to the aid of reading instruction in the modern-language class, there is possible no quantitive appraisal of the most important results of this instruction. Standardized tests are, however, valuable in providing the teacher with a norm by which he may compare the achievement of his classes with that of the classes of other teachers. A discussion of standardized tests available for testing reading ability can be found in Chapter Four.

Tests of reading achievement can be made only after the ability to be gauged has been carefully analyzed. Tests of ability to read in a modern language are generally designed to discover the achievement level of students in regard to vocabulary, idiom, syntax, and the ability to gather accurately the meanings from a page. The rates at which students can perform are also measurable by these tests.

A useful test of reading ability is the assignment to an entire class of sight translation of unfamiliar material to be done within a specified period of time. Such tests the teacher can of course improvise without expense.

PROBLEMS FOR STUDY

1. Write out tersely an inclusive list of situations in which translation seems best (*a*) for initial instruction, (*b*) for a permanent method, (*c*) not at all.

2. What is the value of oral-aural work? How would you employ it in a class in which reading is the first objective and ability to understand the foreign language a second objective?

3. Sketch your idea of how a secondary-school class in which the sole object is reading ability should be conducted for two years.

4. Make a list of simplified reading texts containing ample material for the first two years in secondary school.

5. Write out type-questions in any one foreign language concerning a page of reading text.

Chapter Nine

Making Reading Serve Broad Educational Objectives

STRIVING for proper ultimate objectives often facilitates attainment of worth-while immediate ends. Thus in modern-language study specific language skills may frequently be encouraged by emphasis on such far-reaching objectives as the development of a sympathetic understanding of foreign cultures, appreciation of literature or other forms of art, or ability to analyze and express philosophical thought. Consciousness of such large and worthy purposes will not only increase greatly the contributions that language study may make to the all-round development of the pupil, but it will also contribute positively to the effectiveness with which language skills are attained. Consideration of these final and important ends stimulates the development of situations that create natural demands on language and so encourages sound language habits. Particularly in the reading program is it important to orient teaching in this way to broad objectives. The reading materials selected and the discussions based on these should accordingly all be planned with ultimate aims of the language course in mind.

THE TECHNIQUE OF LITERATURE STUDY

If sound reading habits are to be developed, it is essential, as has already been indicated, that attention be centered on the thought content and not on the words merely. It is accordingly in line with the attainment of reading skill that discussion of the lesson be carefully planned. The pupil's reading and the class discussion of this reading may thus contribute directly to the building up of a store of worth-while information or the developing of tastes and ideals.

The technique of class discussion of the reading material must be well planned, for by it will be largely determined pupil attitudes toward their reading.

The most effective method of conducting the reading lesson is that of questioning and of suggesting. When a question is asked, it should be put to the whole class and anyone allowed to volunteer an answer. Many questions should stimulate a personal application, so that the student speaks out of his own feelings and experience. The atmosphere of the class must be free and easy so that the pupils will be led to express themselves freely and honestly. All contributions to the discussion must be received kindly.

All questions must involve only familiar words. When a student lacks the proper word or expression to express his thought, as will frequently be the case where the discussion is carried on in the foreign language, the teacher must immediately supply for him a simple one which the class knows in order that thought may remain centered on ideas rather than become self-consciously aware of obstacles to free expression.

PHILOSOPHICAL EMPHASES IN LITERATURE STUDY

If handled rightly, the literature lesson may develop attitudes that will come to control emotions and lead to wholesome action. The great writer is a superior student of human nature. Study of literature is really study of life, and a particularly important kind of study, for human behavior is easier to appraise in literature than in everyday life. Significant literature is, therefore, the ideal medium for teaching a foreign language, for it not only provides all the necessary language material but it furnishes material for discussion of fundamental educative value, contributing significantly to the pupil's mental, moral, and artistic development. The material of the reading class if properly chosen may then well be used to bring about improvement in the pupil's whole mental and emotional set-up. Discussion of

philosophical and moral questions involved in the reading may be made to lead to much general educational gain as well as to the direct improvement of language ability.

Questions that stimulate discussion of reasons or motives for the action of the story read will often prove valuable in this connection, as will questions leading to appraisal of practices, institutions, or individual characters. The results of action and the satisfactions or suffering attending them may also well be made the subject for discussion in the reading class. In leading such discussion the teacher must keep always in mind that his purpose is to develop in his pupils the ability to make independent decisions and to judge wisely and soundly; it is not to pass out ready-made opinions for the pupils to memorize. The teacher will attempt to lead pupils to inquire into reasons, read between lines, draw conclusions and inferences, generalize, and summarize.

The following classroom discussions of a German version of Cinderella and a French version of the Sleeping Beauty may suggest the type of class conversation that may be developed from the reading lesson. The first discussion outlined here was developed in a second-term college class.

QUESTION. What sort of woman is the stepmother?

ANSWERS. She is mean and unfair to Cinderella.

She does not keep her word even after she promises repeatedly to let Cinderella go to the ball.

She doesn't mind leading her daughters to deceive the prince.

She lies about not having a third daughter.

She does absurd things to satisfy her ambition; for example, she has her daughters cut off the ends of their toes so they can get into the slipper.

QUESTION. What sort of man is the father?

ANSWERS. He is incapable of providing for or protecting Cinderella.

He has no courage to oppose his wife although he would like to, as he loves Cinderella.

He does not even protest at the way they treat Cinderella.

He is dull. He not only invents nothing to check the mean schemes of his wife and his two other daughters with regard to Cinderella, but

he does stupid things. For instance, when Cinderella escapes from the prince's palace the father cuts down a pear tree instead of peering up into it. When she takes refuge in the hen-house, the father knocks this down instead of searching through it.

QUESTION. What sort of girls are Cinderella's two stepsisters?

ANSWERS. They are vain, always dressing up, and are useless as far as doing any work goes.

They have no sense of responsibility. They are dependent entirely on their mother. They probably never were taught to think out anything for themselves.

They have no fairness and no sense of honesty.

The two stepsisters are docile to the point of doing wrong. They even inflict physical injury on themselves at the command of their mother.

QUESTION. What traits does Cinderella show?

ANSWERS. She is hard-working.

She is true to the memory of her mother.

She is too unassuming. She asks of her father only a hazel twig to plant on her mother's grave, whereas he brings costly jewels and clothes for his stepdaughters.

Cinderella is clever, as is shown when she outwits her stepmother by getting the birds to work for her. She is clever too in escaping from the prince.

QUESTION. Why does she hide from the prince's messenger?

ANSWERS. She probably is ashamed of her poor clothes, of her place in the ashes, of her mean status in the family, of the abusive language stepmother and sisters heap on her.

QUESTION. But why is Cinderella so docile as to slave when she receives no reward?

ANSWERS. Her bringing up is at fault.

QUESTION. What should she have been taught?

ANSWERS. She should have been taught to take her own part, to think out her own problems, to know what to do in an emergency. She should have been taught to insist on her rights.

QUESTION. To what does she owe her final success?

ANSWERS. To luck. To the help of her fairy godmother.

The French version of the Sleeping Beauty was discussed in a French class in second-semester college as follows:

QUESTION. Who were invited to the baptismal feast?

ANSWERS. Seven fairy godmothers and probably uncles, aunts, grandparents, cousins, and men and women of the court.

QUESTION. What sort of spoons, forks, knives, did the king's household eat with?

ANSWERS. Probably wooden ones, as they had only six sets of golden spoons, forks, knives, and there were six fairy godmothers.

QUESTION. Why were the godmothers favored?

ANSWERS. It was expected that each godmother would give the princess some marvelous gift.

QUESTION. What do you suppose they granted her?

ANSWERS. Virtue, riches, beauty, sense, health, kindness, reliability, cleverness, wit.

QUESTION. If all the spindles in the kingdom had been burned, what would have been the result?

ANSWERS. People wouldn't have had clothes. There would have been less work. Business would have failed. The country would have had to import clothes.

QUESTION. What could the *marraines* do?

ANSWERS. They could bestow gifts and also curse people.

QUESTION. Is this enough for *marraines* to do?

ANSWERS. No, if they are so wise, they might warn people of danger, prevent war, teach people how to work, to plan.

QUESTION. Did the king take the right course to keep the princess from being wounded?

ANSWERS. No, for she was wounded.

QUESTION. What might he have done to prevent this?

ANSWERS. He might have instructed her carefully about spindles and how to handle them. He might have had doctors study how to cure spindle wounds.

QUESTION. Did he have all the spindles destroyed?

ANSWERS. No, there was at least one left, the one with which she wounded herself.

QUESTION. Should the king and queen have been put to sleep too?

ANSWERS. Yes, for then they would have awakened with their daughter. As it was, when she awoke after a hundred years, she had no friend and did not feel at home in the world.

QUESTION. What was different in the new world?

ANSWERS. The prince who found her no doubt had entirely different views from hers on almost every subject. She probably didn't fit into the new conditions.

STUDIES IN LITERARY ANALYSIS

Often some elementary work in literary appreciation or critical analysis of the materials read in the modern-language class may supplement the more general discussion. Such analysis can be made to provide effective means of foreign-language study and at the same time contribute significantly to the development of artistic judgment. For the foreign-language teacher has an opportunity second only to that of the English teacher to develop sound taste in reading. By his enthusiasm and guidance he may cultivate a love for reading and encourage the habit of extensive and thoughtful reading.

Study of literary form will of course depend on the maturity level of the students and the teacher's capacity for directing such study. It must always be kept in mind that technical understanding of literary forms has importance only as it reveals the essential meanings behind them and so leads to a deep and inspiring appreciation of literary beauty. But with a view to developing taste and appreciation for good writing, attention may be called on even the most elementary levels to the author's skill in certain particulars. On the higher levels there may be more extended discussion of such matters as the character of art or of any one of its forms; the distinguishing qualities of the various literary forms — prose, poetry, drama, novel, biography, etc.; the purpose and style of the artist of any particular work. Class discussion may to advantage be given a distinctly literary emphasis at times.

Criteria for judging literature may be developed, perhaps some such as those developed by Matthew Arnold as the hallmarks of a work of literary art: simplicity of language, plot, and conceptions of character; unity, developing from singleness of theme or plot with all elements properly subordinated to it; sensuous beauty, involving pleasing imagery, pleasing sound, and poetic connotation of words, with a consequent appeal to the esthetic

sense, the emotions, and to the reason; high seriousness. Class discussion will attempt to discover whether the work in hand has these qualities.

The author's message, his purpose in writing, may be discussed, and his attitude toward the subject he develops. What was the author's intention in writing the work? Of what significance has the work been to the world? Was his chief interest in analyzing natural laws to reveal their universal operation or was he chiefly interested in a movement peculiar to his time — religious, political, industrial, social, or intellectual? Does he represent an optimistic, pessimistic, melioristic, or some other philosophy? Is he a serious thinker or just a spinner of tales?

The motif of the work may well come in for consideration in some instances. Does the work in hand deal with fact, fancy, the inner or the outer life predominantly? If with the inner, then does it deal with the will, imagination, reason, the instincts, emotions, ideals, predominantly? Is it historical, and if so, from what precise period; or does it deal with contemporary life, or with the future? Does the work deal with a particular region of the native land of the author, or with a foreign land, or an imaginary one? Does it deal with a particular activity or sphere of life? Does it treat of a particular class of people? Is the story impossible, improbable, or plausible?

Is the plot action fast or slow? If it is slow, is it held up by description, philosophical discourse, or careless insertion of irrelevant action? What proportions of description, narration, exposition, argument, are there in the writing?

Is the author's language rhythmic? Does he use figures of speech to any great extent? Are these apt, or faulty? Do vulgar, technical, local, slang, archaic, erudite, new, or foreign words intrude? Are words of high poetic connotation used? Are the sentences elegant, abrupt, short, long, involved, clear?

Is there much portrayal of scenery and other natural phenomena? If so, what is evidently its object — to give the reader

pleasure, to afford setting for characters and events, or to enhance mood or character?

Is the plot clear? Is there more than one plot? Is it dramatic or episodical, with independent, loosely strung episodes interspersed that might be taken out without destroying the plot of the whole work?

Has the author depicted characters and action realistically, depicting them faithfully as they appear in nature? Or has he described romantically, fancifully, not being bound by facts and actualities? In either case, the author must have idealized, selected, eliminated, to make his work of art. What qualities has the author displayed in doing these things in the work under study?

The author's method of character portrayal may in some instances become the subject for discussion. Is character largely depicted through the character's acts and words, through the acts and words of the other characters, or the author's comment? Is the amount of description of character given by the author's own comment typical of the modern novel or of that of some earlier period? Brunetière called the character through which the author likes to pronounce his own views the "sympathetic" character; is there such a one in the work in hand?

A stationary character is one who undergoes little change or development in the work. Are there characters of this sort in the story or is the story principally one of character development? Do the characters generally show improvement in body and soul, melioration, or deterioration, degeneration?

Is the environment, the milieu, of the story suggested by the language — dialect, patois, child's talk, etc. — or by local color portraying customs, costumes, furniture, architecture, callings, etc.?

Is the motivation for plot action well considered? Is the motivation explained briefly or in detail, or is it left more or less unexplained for the reader to think out?

In H. Alpern's "New-Type Examination in Spanish Literature" and his "A Modern Test in Modern Literature" [1] there is evidence of the author's regard for this type of critical study. The pupil is asked for the name of the author, a brief summary of the plot, and a very concise critique of each of a list of literary works.

The following exercises, one developed about a lyric, the other about a play, will perhaps suggest ways of developing such critical analysis in the foreign-language class. In teaching a lyric, understanding what is said is Step One; reading it aloud and enjoying its beauty is Step Two; taking the meaning to heart is Step Three.

Trace out the sequence of the thought of the lyric in your own words by making a synopsis of what is said or of what happens. What mood does the poem embody, or what feeling does it portray? Is it buoyant, hopeful, depressed, resigned, melancholy, etc.? Is it true to nature? Is the imagery apt? Is this a lyric of love, of home, country, health, God, friendship, sports, or what? Does it largely picture, or does it present reflection and moralization? What was the author's message?

Samples of questions developed in study of a drama follow.

What is the theme, or problem, in this play? Why was the author attracted to his theme? Why is there no solution given? Was it because the author wanted to stimulate the reader to think out one, or because there was none possible at the stage of historic or industrial revolution in which the story takes place, or is there some other reason? Does this drama contain an arraignment, and if so of whom or what? Why are the early works of this writer in prose, the later in verse? Who is the hero in the play — the one highest in station, the one who speaks most, the one who causes most of the action, the one for whom the play is named, or who? What differences are there between a drama and an idyll, or a novel? What constitutes tragedy? Who are the antagonists in this drama? Who the protagonists? What are they struggling about? On which side are your sympathies? Why? Are the author's and hence the reader's sympathies always on the side of the protagonists?

[1] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Jan., 1930), pp. 290–295; and Vol. 17 (Jan., 1933), pp. 268–274.

Which is the more terrible kind of tragedy, that in which the hero goes under guiltlessly, or where he is guilty? Give examples of both. What sort of characters does this drama show — stationary or developing, passive or active? Are active or passive characters better in drama? in the novel? Does the author express his own opinions more through one character than another? If so, through which one? Should a drama have a purpose? Does the author of this drama reflect actual conditions? Are his facts reliable? Is there a solution of the problem offered in this drama? If so, what is it? If not, why not?

STUDY OF THE FOREIGN CIVILIZATION

It is important that the reading done in the modern-language course serve not only such general philosophical and literary ends as those discussed but that it also contribute directly to the growth of international understanding and good will. To this end a vital part of the language course must be the building up of a sound knowledge of the foreign culture. Informational reading on the subject and study of the foreign literature are the most important means to this end. Specific suggestions of readings important in this connection are given later in this chapter.

The pupil's reading in and outside class may be to a considerable extent directed to the development of an understanding of the foreign culture, and supplementary activities will increase this understanding and at the same time stimulate and direct reading.

Study of the culture of foreign peoples and regions involves many elements. There must be consideration of both material and spiritual factors. Knowledge must be developed of the physical resources of a people, of the geographical and historical environment that has influenced the group tastes and habits, of the institutions to which these tastes and habits have given rise, and in general of all the various manifestations of the temperament that has come to mark the group.

There are seven heads under which it may be found convenient to group the significant facts of the more material phases of a civilization. These are (1) natural resources, (2) things grown

or bred by the people, (3) processes for changing natural products, (4) system of transporting, (5) system of storing, (6) system of exchange, (7) system of consumption. The facts are obviously those of geography, economics, and sociology. The language teacher will do well to build for himself a substantial background of knowledge in these fields as well as to make readily accessible to pupils ample reference books on the various phases of the subjects involved.

The temperamental qualities and the traditional ways of thinking and acting that lie behind the established institutions of a country will perhaps always be more effectively conveyed by its arts than by its sciences. Music, painting, sculpture, architecture, costume, handcrafts, recreation, social customs, home life, all these and various other indications of mood and taste suggest the qualities of people in a way that no scientific analysis of conditions or institutions could. About all these things the student must read widely, and he must experience the arts at first hand. No amount of description or appraisal of them alone will serve the purpose of suggesting the temper of the people behind them as will the actual handling or viewing of the products of their design and industry. The reading lesson may well be supplemented wherever feasible by experience with visual materials and realia, to the stimulation of reading ability and the development of sympathetic understanding of the foreign culture.

It will in some instances be found most effective to set aside an entire class period at regular intervals to devote to study of the foreign civilization. In secondary schools the first class period after a holiday or vacation will be especially good for this purpose as pupils will have made little preparation for the lesson in any event. It does not usually prove effective to attempt to cover the study of civilization in short periods taken from the regular class hours, as it is too likely then to get crowded out altogether, to be cut up into too short units, and to come to seem to the pupil an unimportant part of the course.

E. H. Dummer [1] gives an account of a plan that has been successfully used at Elmhurst College. Various members of the college faculty give illustrated lectures, one every two weeks, to the first-year German class on various phases of German culture. The topics covered by these in one year were Important Men and Events, Touring Germany, German Society and Education, Customs and Manners, Crafts, Music, Painters, Architecture, Religion, Theater, Great Thinkers, Government, Famous Scientists, Famous German-Americans. Such a plan might well be widely adopted in colleges and secondary schools as supplementary to other work in civilization. Assignments of reading on the subject of the lecture might be made far enough in advance so that students would have a background of at least elementary knowledge to bring to their hearing of it.

Some colleges give courses devoted to study of the foreign civilization. In such a course at Smith College specialists on various phases of the civilization are called in to lecture, an art professor, for example, to discuss the painting of the country or a chemist to talk on its contributions to chemical progress. In other instances an instructor carries on the course alone, the work comprising readings in the civilization text and outside sources with class review and discussion of their content. In some instances the course comprises almost exclusively a study of literature, which is then read in translation.[2] At Miami University the courses in foreign literatures and civilizations are conducted in English and are open to all students.

C. Kinne [3] has described an eight-week course in the study of

[1] "The Teaching of German Civilization in First-Year and Second-Year College Classes," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1936), pp. 179–185.

[2] See L. MacClintock's "French Literature in English Translation" and his "French Life," both in the *Journal of the Indiana State Teachers College*, Vol. 6 (1934), pp. 70–71, which give accounts of two civilization courses that use literature as their medium of instruction.

[3] "A Course on French Customs as an Aid to the Study of French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Feb., 1927), pp. 320–327.

French life and civilization. She experimented with art and geography, physical and economic, as fields for concentrated study in the late weeks of the course, and found art the more effective subject.

A number of valuable articles have appeared on the subject of teaching the foreign civilization. Mary E. Peters [1] has made some valuable suggestions on the use of realia for this purpose. The same subject was treated in 1933 in an academic thesis by Katherine Goodwin of Northwestern University. H. Nashorn of the College of the City of New York wrote in 1933 on this subject as applied to German, and Dorothy Parkhurst of New York University applied it to French in 1934. These theses are available in libraries of the respective universities. A. L. Guerard's article "On the Teaching of French Civilization" [2] is stimulating and helpful. O. Springer gives valuable hints and bibliography on "German Kulturkunde," [3] as do O. Koischwitz,[4] O. S. Fleissner,[5] and Lillian Stroebe.[6] Mathilde Holtz describes a valuable project, "Rediscovering Germany for German Classes." [7] In a discussion of the teaching of civilization C. E. Ficken lists the following "rungs" in the cultural ladder: the use of realia, acquiring of information, development of appreciation and attitudes, the latter considered to be generally neglected.[8] E. Jackson and others have written a "Syllabus for Pupils of Lower Linguistic Ability" [9] in which they state as their first aim the integration of language skills with an understanding of the civilization.

[1] "A Project in Teaching Modern Languages," *H.*, Vol. 17 (Dec., 1934), pp. 367–369.

[2] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (Feb., 1923), pp. 257–267.

[3] *M.f.U.*, Vol. 25 (Oct., 1933), pp. 168–174.

[4] *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (May, 1928), pp. 107–115.

[5] *G.Q.*, Vol. 4 (Jan., 1931), pp. 1–12.

[6] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 3 (May, 1919), pp. 382–385; Vol. 4 (April, 1920), pp. 348–356; Vol. 5 (Oct., 1920), pp. 38–45; Vol. 5 (Nov., 1920), pp. 93–101.

[7] *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1928), pp. 177–183.

[8] "Wanted: A Cultural Inventory," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1937), pp. 307–314.

[9] *H.P.*, Vol. 17 (Sept., 1935), pp. 5–31.

As has already been suggested, the literature of a people is the most important means of conveying an impression of its culture in the schoolroom. Reading is found to be the most important single channel through which understanding of the foreign culture will be conveyed in the language class whether or not the course is especially designed as a study of the culture. For not only does the spiritual and esthetic quality of the literary work reveal the temper of the civilization that it portrays and that produced it, but the content very frequently gives highly informative descriptions of actual conditions of the foreign scene. It is not possible to read a scene from Molière, Goethe, Lope de Vega, or Dante, for example, without having a glimpse into the very heart of the culture represented, a glimpse not merely of the material accouterments of this culture but of its spiritual essence. Through a knowledge of a people's literature one accordingly comes to know the people with insight and accuracy. If we are to encourage our pupils to utilize this important means of knowledge, we must lead them to read the foreign literature extensively. Pupils whose facility in reading is limited must be stimulated to read translations of the great foreign literary works. Books in the original language or translation must be kept readily available and interest in them continually stimulated.

Acquaintance with the great men and women of a foreign nation is an integral part of any adequate knowledge of a civilization. Goethe has said that in order to know a civilization one need but know its great representatives. Certain it is that much of the influence that shaped the development of a country's great men may be learned from study of their lives, and many changes in the life of a country may be best understood in the light of knowledge of the great men who influenced them. An important part of the reading of the foreign-language class may therefore well deal with the lives and activities of outstanding representatives of its culture.

The following lists, classified by fields of activity and accom-

plishment, suggest subjects for biographical study in the French, German, Spanish, or Italian course. Unfortunately, available space does not permit extending this list far enough back into time to include the great Italians of the fifteenth, Spaniards of the sixteenth, or French of the seventeenth century. Names of the great of these earlier centuries and their achievements the teacher will have to supply if desired. Those indicated will suggest various stimulating and profitable studies. The selection of these eminent men and women from among the great of France, Germany, Spain, and Italy was no slight task. The method used was that of J. McKeen Cattell, as expounded in "A Statistical Study of Eminent Men." [1]

FRENCH

ARCHAEOLOGY. *De Perthes* first identified a prehistoric flint implement.

ASTRONOMY. *Leverrier* was the co-discoverer of the planet Neptune.

BIOLOGY. *Lamarck*, author of the theory of biological descent, also forecast modern theories of evolution.

BACTERIOLOGY. *Pasteur* destroyed the theory of spontaneous generation; with *R. Koch* founded the germ theory; found a cure for anthrax; rehabilitated the silk industry, pasteurized milk, etc. *Schloessing* and *Muntz* invented purification through nitrification.

CHEMISTRY. *M. Curie and Mme. Curie* discovered radium, polonium, etc. *Gay-Lussac* gave us the chemistry of gases. *Laënnec* was the co-founder of clinical medicine. *Lavoisier* laid the foundations of modern chemistry and demonstrated the indestructibility of matter. *Laënnec* with *Auenbrugger* founded clinical medicine.

EXPLORATION. *Huc* was the first to get as far into Tibet as the capital.

HISTORY. *Taine* wrote social history. *Michelet* is a great historian of France.

INVENTION. The *Montgolfier* brothers invented the balloon. *De Rozier* made the first aerial voyage; the *Robert* brothers the first voyage in a balloon. *Blanchard* was the first to cross the English Channel in a balloon. *Chappé* invented the semaphore telegraph. *Blériot* invented the mono-

[1] *Popular Science Monthly*, Vol. 62 (Feb., 1903), pp. 359–377.

plane airship. *Chavez* made the first airplane flight across the Alps. *Fourneyron* invented the water turbine. *Niepce* invented the photograph. *Daguerre* perfected it. *Bernoutte* invented the screw propeller. *Pixii* advanced electric-generator construction. *Lenoir* made the first successful gas engine. *De Rochas* drew up the first plans for a four-cycle gas engine. *Jacquard* invented the Jacquard loom. *Appert* invented food-canning. *Roberts* made the first paper-making machine. *Taverner-Gravet* improved the slide rule.

LETTERS. *Le Sage* popularized the picaresque novel. *Buffon* was a great writer on natural history. *Boileau* was a critic and the author of *L'art poétique*. *Saint-Beuve* led in literary criticism. *Molière* was the foremost writer of comedies. *La Fontaine* was a world-famous writer of fables; *Lamartine*, a romantic writer, and *Mme. de Staël*, a European intellectual and writer. *Mme. de Sévigné* won fame as a writer of letters. *Hugo* became a world-famous idealistic novelist; *Chateaubriand*, a famous writer; and *Dumas père* a romantic novelist. The *Goncourt* brothers founded naturalism. *Rolland* is an internationalist and writer; *A. France*, a writer and skeptical philosopher. *Balzac* was the author of *La Comédie Humaine*. *Zola* was the chief exponent of naturalism; *Stendal*, a great naturalistic writer. *Flaubert* wrote *Madame Bovary*.

MATHEMATICS. *Laplace* raised the theory of probability to a science, is with Kant co-author of the theory of nebular hypothesis of the evolution of the universe, and completed Newton's work on the solar system. *D'Alembert* was a great mathematician and one of the founders of the *Encyclopédie*. *La Grange* is the author of analytical functions.

MEDICINE. *Poiseulle* invented the instrument to test blood pressure. *Laveran* discovered the cause of malaria to be infection by mosquitoes.

MILITARY SCIENCE. *Bazaine*, *MacMahon*, *Ney*, were Marshals of France. *Napoleon I* was Emperor and *Foch* was a famous Marshal of France.

MUSIC. *Berlioz* wrote symphonies and operas. *Chopin* created mazurkas, nocturnes, waltzes. *Rameau* wrote theoretical works on music, also operas, etc.

PAINTING. *Corot* was a famous landscape painter, *Courbet* a famous realist. *Manet* is the co-founder of impressionism.

PHILOLOGY. *Renan* founded the higher criticism of the Life of Christ.

PHILOSOPHY. *Condillac* is the author of sensationalism; *Compte*, a social philosopher. *Diderot* was one of the founders of the *Encyclopédie*. *Montesquieu* promulgated a new philosophy of statecraft. *Voltaire* attacked authority, destroyed shallow optimism, furthered humanitarian-

ism. *Rousseau* taught that civilization corrupts, advised a return to nature, and inspired democracy.

PHYSICS. *Ampère* invented the measurement of electricity. *Pixii* made progress in construction of the electric generator. *De Rochas* developed the first theoretical specification for a four-cycle gas engine. *Becquerel* discovered "Becquerel rays." *De Broglie* developed the electron theory. *Réaumur* invented a thermometer.

SCULPTURE. *Rodin* was a master sculptor.

SOCIAL LEADERS were *Mme. de Maintenon* and *Mme. de Pompadour.*

SOCIOLOGY. *Saint Simon, Fourier,* and *Cabet* founded the theory of socialism. *Proudhon* was the author of the theory of anarchism.

STATESMANSHIP. *Turgot* was a statesman and economist, *Louis XIV* a famous statesman, *Mirabeau* a royal statesman. *Robespierre* became a revolutionary statesman. *Mazarin* was a statesman and defender of royalty. *Richelieu,* royal premier, secured European leadership for France. *Napoleon* created new statecraft and manner of warfare.

GERMAN

ASTRONOMY. *Kepler* was the author of "Kepler's laws." *Herschel* discovered Uranus, constructed the first great telescope, mapped the stars of the Milky Way, showed our universe moving in a certain direction, etc. *Bessel* founded exact astronomy.

BIOLOGY. *Mendel* discovered "Mendel's law" of descent. *Rubner* confirmed the law of conservation of energy for intake and output of the animal organism. *Schwann* and *Schleiden* promulgated the cellular theory of plant bodies. *Loeb* founded the theory of tropisms.

BACTERIOLOGY. *Eberth* discovered the typhoid germ. *Ehrlich* founded chemotherapy and invented "salvarsan" for treatment of syphilis. *Pollender* identified the first microorganism. *Koch* laid the foundation of bacteriology. *Klebs* identified the diphtheria germ; *Loeffler* isolated it. *Nicholaier* discovered the germ of tetanus. *Behring* invented a serum for diphtheria and tetanus.

CHEMISTRY. *Müller* founded physiological chemistry. *Hillebrand* extracted a gas from pitchblende. *Liebig* founded applied chemistry and scientific agriculture. *Wöhler* prepared an organic from an inorganic substance, also aniline dyes. *Kekulé* established the laws of organic synthesis. *Frank-Caro* invented a process for the production of calcium carbide. *Haber* invented a process of nitrogen production. *Osthaus* founded physical and electrical chemistry.

ECONOMICS. *Schmoller* and *Sombart* advanced in economic law. *Schulze-Delitsch* founded the first workers' coöperatives.

EDUCATION. *Herbart* is the author of the "Herbartian steps." *Pestalozzi* was the founder of modern education; *Froebel*, of the kindergarten.

GEOGRAPHY. *A. van Humboldt* founded the sciences of climatology and plant morphology.

HISTORY. *Ranke* and *Niebuhr* created modern methods of historical research. *Mommsen* founded study of inscriptions. *Neander* founded church history. *Waitz* founded the greatest collection of source material. *Lamprecht* is the great representative of social and cultural history. *Spengler* founded a new morphology of history.

INVENTIONS. *Senefelder* invented lithography, and *Schönbein*, gun-cotton. *Abbé* made the first substage condenser, and greatly improved microscopes, while *Zeiss* made the first apochromatic lenses. *König* made the first steam printing press, and *Sprengel* made the pump used in making incandescent light bulbs. *Amsler-Laffon* invented the polar planometer. *Lilienthal* invented the first flying machine, while *Zeppelin* is the creator of the heavier-than-air dirigible, which *Eckener* helped to perfect. *Diesel* gave us the internal-combustion engine which bears his name. *Benz* helped perfect the automobile, and *Siemens*, the German Edison, was most prolific in the invention of telegraphs, cables, the dynamo, etc. *Mergenthaler* invented the linotype.

LAW. *Thomasius* fought and defeated witch trials, and *Savigny* instituted a beneficent reform of German law.

LETTERS. *Goethe* created a new spirit in literature. *Lessing* created judicial criticism. *Herder* wrote the first philosophy of history. *Schiller* created the new-style Grecian-Western drama. *Grillparzer* created a new drama of Grecian grace and Western realism. *Keller* led poetic-realism to new heights. *Heine* wrote a new type of sprightly, witty lyric. *G. Hauptmann* produced a new type of naturalistic and symbolic drama.

MATHEMATICS. *Gauss* was a great pioneer in mathematics and physics.

MEDICINE. *Virchow* founded cellular pathology. *Auenbrugger* was the first to use percussion diagnosis of the sick. *Müller* promulgated the law of specific nerve energies. *Credé* was the first to treat the eyes of newborn infants with silver nitrate. *Schiff* founded hormonic therapy. *Lunin* established the vitamin theory.

MILITARY SCIENCE. Germany boasts *Frederick the Great*, *Blücher*, *Moltke*.

MUSIC. *Bach* founded the mechanics of music. *Beethoven* founded

modern music. *Händel* is the creator of the oratorio. *Mozart* wedded rich melodic content to classical form. *Liszt* led symphonic music to greater heights. *Schubert* perfected the song as a musical type. *Wagner* created the opera as a composite art of orchestra music, singing, and acting.

Painting. *Lenbach* furthered realistic portraiture. *Menzel* enlarged the field of realistic motives.

Philology. *Bopp* founded comparative philology, and the *Brothers Grimm* Germanic philology. *Strauss* founded the higher criticism of Biblical sources.

Philosophy. *Leibniz* established an optimistic philosophy. *Kant* destroyed dogmatic rationalism; delimited what we can know; created a new dynamic ethics; was co-author of the Kant-Laplace nebular hypothesis; made the first proposal for universal peace and a league of nations to insure this. *Fichte* created a subjective philosophy: Spirit rules the world; he was also a foremost educator. *Hegel* created the philosophy of thesis, antithesis, and synthesis. *Schopenhauer* wrote a pessimistic philosophy, but loved the underprivileged. *Nietzsche* contrasted the "slave morality" of Christianity and Jewry with the joyous, zestful view of the Greeks, and wished to lead men to higher forms of living as supermen.

Physics. *Helmholtz* invented the optical mirror and discovered the law of conservation of energy. *Fraunhofer* discovered the "Fraunhofer lines." *Kirchhoff* and *Bunsen* invented the spectroscope and spectral analysis. *Ohm* first measured electricity. *Clausius* discovered the law of dissipation of energy. *Hertz* discovered the "Hertzian waves." *Otto* produced the first four-cycle gas engine, which *Daimler* perfected. *Schrödinger* produced the theory of wave mechanics. *Röntgen* discovered X-rays. *Planck* promulgated the quantum theory in physics, which *Heisenberg* supplemented with his "principle of uncertainty." *Einstein* founded the theory of relativity, the greatest discovery since Newton. *Michelson* perfected star measurements.

Psychology. *Wundt* did pioneer service in experimental psychology. *Herbart* was long known for his "Herbartian steps." *Freud* is chief founder of therapeutic psychology; with him are associated *Jung* and *Adler*. Today there is much talk of the *Gestalt* psychology of *Koffka* and *Köhler*.

Religion. *Francke* founded vast missionary enterprises and eleemosynary foundations. *Tholuck*, once more, after *Luther*, raised theology to the status of a master-science. *Steiner*, in our day, made anthroposophism

popular with millions of people, while *Tröltsch* did this service for Christianity. *Haeckel* demonstrated for many the reconcilability of science and religion.

Sculpture. *Rauch* may claim world distinction for his portrait statues.

Social Leaders. *Louise, Queen of Prussia*, inspired universal love by her noble and kindly life. *Mrs. Otto Peters* and *Augusta Schmidt* organized the woman's movement in the 19th century. *Bebel* led the socialistic *bloc* in the Reichstag. *Marx* and *Engels* created communistic doctrine.

Sociology. *Simmel* and *Weber* gave us the first philosophy of sociology.

Stagecraft. *Reinhardt* revolutionized stage technique.

Statesmanship. *Frederick the Great* created the Prussian State, made it the head of Germany, and gave Germany a sound economy. *Von Stein* abolished the last traces of serfdom, gave German cities a democratic form of government, financed the Wars of Liberation. *Bismarck* founded modern Germany and gave her standing as a world power. *Hindenburg* was the leading German figure of the World War, later espoused the cause of the German Republic, became its second president and the national hero in the hard post-war period. *Hitler* became head of the German state in 1933.

SPANISH

Criticism. *Menéndez Pidal* pioneered in Spanish philology. *Menéndez y Pelayo* won fame as a scholar and critic. *Ortega y Gasset* became known as a philosophical writer. *Santayana*, Spanish-American, is famed as a writer on philosophy and esthetics.

Inventions. *Cierva* invented the autogyro.

Letters. *Bretón de los Herreros* excelled in comic power. *Galdós* became internationally famous as a novelist. *Echegaray* won the Nobel Prize for his dramas; also was prominent in international affairs. *Benevente* won a Nobel Prize as a dramatist. *Unamuno* became internationally famous as novelist and politician. *Valle-Inclán* is famed for his novels. *Valera* won fame as a novelist and also as a statesman. *Valdés* owes his reputation to his novels and his critical works. *Blasco Ibáñez* pioneered in the modern novel.

Music. *Albeñiz* won international repute as a pianist and writer of pianoforte compositions, as *Sarasati* did as a violinist and composer of gypsy music. *Iturbi* distinguished himself as a pianist and conductor of orchestras. *Lucrezia Bori* achieved fame for her soprano voice.

Painting. *Goya* pioneered in the fantastic-realistic picture. *Picasso* founded cubism and became an outstanding representative of post-

expressionism. *Sorolla* is noted for his figure painting, landscapes, and portraiture. *Zuloaga* made a name for himself with his genre pictures.

SCIENCE. *Ramon y Cajal* won the Nobel Prize in anatomy.

STATESMANSHIP. *Madariaga* advanced the cause of international understanding as an author and as a diplomatist.

ITALIAN

ANATOMY. *Morgagni* founded systematic, morbid anatomy.

ANTHROPOLOGY. *Lombroso* influenced modern anthropology.

ART. *Caruso* was the greatest singer of modern times. *Canova* revived great Italian sculpture.

ASTRONOMY. *Secchi* pioneered in stellar, solar, and terrestrial physics.

CHEMISTRY. *Avogadro* discovered "Avogadro's law." *Cannizzaro* continued Avogadro's researches and established the atomic theory.

DRAMA. *Eleonora Duse* won fame by her acting.

LAW. *Beccaria* founded modern criminology.

LETTERS. *Alfieri* stands foremost in Italian tragedy, as *Goldoni* does in comedy, *Manzoni* in the novel, and *Leopardi* in the lyric.

MEDICINE. *Grassi* showed malaria to be caused by a certain mosquito.

MUSIC. *Spontini* is famous for his grand operas, while *Rossini* became the most celebrated modern composer. *Bellini* is noted for the melodic and dramatic qualities of his operas, as are *Donizetti* and *Verdi*.

PHILOSOPHY. *Vico* is called the creator of the philosophy of history. *Gioberti* won fame as a philosopher and statesman, *Papini* as a philosopher and critic, and *Croce* as a philosopher and esthetician.

PHYSICS. *Pacinotti* denotes marked advance in generator construction. *Galvani* discovered galvanism, *Volta* the "voltaic pile," and *Marconi* wireless telegraphy.

STATESMANSHIP. *Garibaldi* was one of the great patriots and generals, while *Mazzini* stands for patriotism and poetry. *Cavour* was an outstanding Italian statesman, as are *Victor Emmanuel II* and *Mussolini*.

CHOICE OF READING MATERIALS

The first problem of the teacher in planning a reading program is obviously to see that the materials pupils are asked to read are worth reading. They should contain inspiring thought well expressed. The standard classics of any language, of course, meet these requirements.

The classics treat of the eternal problems of the human spirit rather than merely the workaday material aspects of life. Through them the reader is accordingly not only led to a deep and sure insight into the civilization that produced them, but his all-round development is inevitably stimulated. The classics express the aspirations, the ideals, the greatest ideas of certain periods in the development of the foreign culture. To know a nation, we must know its great writers. We must know Molière's war on sham and hypocrisy if we would know the French; we must have sensed Racine's Grecian poise and elegance, the rugged honesty and high striving of Corneille. We must know Goethe's and Schiller's conception of a broad and humane culture, Lessing's keen and fearless criticism and his bold advocacy of religious toleration, the mellow humor of Cervantes, the broad experience of Lope de Vega, the classic culture of the Renaissance in Dante and Petrarch, if we are to understand the history and the people of the countries represented.

There are, however, dangers and difficulties in connection with the use of foreign classics in the language course that should be kept in mind. Too exclusive attention to the classics will mean that contemporary thought and event will be slighted. For immature minds the modern scene and point of view are often essential to understanding or to interest and should certainly be presented in at least a fair portion of the material read in the language class. It is moreover of vital importance that the student be made acquainted with contemporary conditions in the countries being studied.

Contemporary writings are in many instances recommended also as providing materials of a lighter and more easily understood character than is typical of the classics. It is readily apparent that the depth of thought expressed in much of the standard literature of any language will be incomprehensible to the adolescent. His interest too is generally in the concrete and immediate rather than in the abstract or philosophical and remote.

Another serious difficulty in the way of reading standard classics in the elementary language class is the fact that the vocabulary is usually too hard for the pupils. Not until the second half of the second year in college can classics generally be used, and even here specially revised editions may be needed with the vocabulary simplified by the substitution of high-frequency words for the low-frequency ones of the original text. Although more and more literary texts are being simplified in this way for language courses, the danger of mutilating a work of art in the making of these school versions of the classics is certainly a serious one and can be avoided only when revision is undertaken by persons of taste, knowledge, and skill. The finer and greater the literature, too, the less does it lend itself to such simplification for language study. W. Beardsley asserts that classics can be simplified without damage only if the attractiveness of the work depends on plot, not on style.[1] M. West believes that the abridgeable type of book is the novel in which character and description are subordinated to plot.[2] There are now available numerous simplified reading texts for which extravagant claims are made but that do not reach high standards of either literature or pedagogy. Teachers should study carefully all these texts available before adopting any.

For all these reasons classics will have to be introduced with careful forethought into the elementary- or secondary-school course.

Although more space has typically been given in professional writings to the arrangement and make-up of reading texts [3] than

[1] "Simplifying the Classics," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 396–397.

[2] "The Abridgment of Novels for Schools," *Overseas Education*, Vol. 5 (Jan., 1934), pp. 72–76.

[3] See especially the following articles: A. W. Porterfield, "The Publisher and Our Conscience," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Feb., 1934), pp. 299–304; R. B. Roulston, "Texts and Their Critics," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (April, 1933), pp. 481–490; R. T. Holbrook, "The Editing of French Texts for Schools and Colleges," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 1 (Oct., 1916), pp. 18–32; Cony Sturgis, "The Spanish Textbook," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 5 (Feb., 1921), pp. 256–266.

to the nature and quality of the material read, there has been important discussion of these matters also.

D. Mornet [1] advises both classical and contemporary reading. Although W. A. Beardsley does not favor contemporary literature for class reading,[2] a symposium of twelve modern-language professors [3] does. J. Warshaw [4] wants less strictly literary reading than is now done, even on the college level, while A. D. Minut [5] advocates more of this type of work even in high school. R. P. Bowen [6] is of the opinion that German classical literature is more usable with adolescents than are the works of the more intellectual French and Spanish writers.

Whether classics or contemporary works are to be read, they must be chosen with great care. Some authors develop certain lines of interests, some develop others. How different is, for instance, the romantic Berry of George Sand from that of Guillaumin in *La vie d'un simple*, or the stately classical Paris of Racine from that of Pierre Hamp's *La marée fraîche* or his *Les metiers blessés*. We need therefore to choose books in accordance with the lines of thought and action that we wish to stimulate, and with the interests and tastes of our pupils. Particularly is it true that the books and direction offered pupils for their free outside reading should appeal widely to the students' developing interests and powers and experiences in other phases of school life. The student who is experiencing a religious awakening, for example,

[1] *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Nov., 1928), pp. 125–129.

[2] "What Is Universal and Permanent in Contemporary Literature?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Oct., 1928), pp. 57–59.

[3] E. C. Armstrong and others, "The Problem of Contemporary Literature, A Symposium," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (May, 1928), pp. 601–613.

[4] "Literature versus Language in the Colleges," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Jan., 1928), pp. 281–291.

[5] "Foreign Literature in the Classroom," *F.R.*, Vol. 1 (March, 1928), pp. 22–29.

[6] "If Not Literature in Our High School and Junior College Romance Classes, Then What?" *M.L.F.* Vol. 14 (Oct., 1929), pp. 1–7; also "French Literature in High School Classes," *F.R.*, Vol. 3 (March, 1930), pp. 334–339.

may find some of Thomas Aquinas, St. Augustine, Thomas à Kempis, interesting, helpful, and entirely within his grasp. The youthful revolutionist may find the French writings of the revolutionary period suggestive of techniques for inducing social change. A similar interest might be nourished through the writings of Luther and Erasmus. The music student may wish to read the libretti of the operas he hears over the radio. When the content is directly pertinent to a live interest, strict control of the vocabulary burden may be temporarily disregarded without harm — provided the material is within hailing distance of the student's powers. It is too much, however, to expect the beginning student to read foreign material of the order of Cicero's letters in the original. If this material is necessary in developing a significant interest, it should be provided in translation.

There has been some directed inquiry into the reading tastes of children that should help guide the selection of types of literature for the modern-language class.

The Kurzes [1] summarized as follows the questions concerning selection of literary materials raised by their study of French college texts:

1. Seventy per cent of the examined material is fiction, 60 per cent is short stories. Are we overworking the short story?
2. How far do books of fairy tales, primitive folk-tales, and children's stories serve the purposes of French culture among college students?
3. When a book is selected for its humor, is the fun appropriate for young adolescents, or for the more mature minds of college students?
4. In choosing sustained story, romance, or novel, should its contribution to French culture be considered as well as its exciting plot?
5. French poetry received attention in only one of our ten readers. Should we use more poems?
6. Only one book on the list shows any variety in the kind of material offered for reading. Do we need greater variety of material? Should variety be found oftener within the covers of a single volume?

[1] Grace and Harry Kurz, "The Realia Found in French Readers Used in College Courses," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 281–326 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

7. Some of the exercises in composition which follow a text make use of French *realia*, while others do not. How far is such inclusion desirable?

8. What interesting cultural and informational material might modify an overemphasis on fiction? Should it be derived from plays, poems, modern science, international sentiment, recent contributions to French criticism of literature, art, drama?

9. How can French interest in art, music, in beauty generally, be presented to college students through French sources? Our investigation shows a serious lack of such subject matter in the books prevailingly in use.

10. One of our ten books presents medieval scenes, some of the provincial tales are of early traditional times, others are of the revolutionary period, and some are of the mid-century. Only three short selections can be called contemporary. What period or periods of French civilization, or history, are most desirable for their cultural influence upon students of the first two years of college French?

Lancaster [1] found 812 votes for novels, 797 for poetry, 67 for essays, 31 for history, 30 for travels. We know too [2] that boys of the age of the great majority of those in modern-language classes in high school or even college typically prefer action and adventure stories. Girls of the same ages prefer emotional stories and poetry, but are usually interested in the adventure story when it is brought to their attention. Stories dealing principally with sex or romantic love are generally ill-adapted to use in the modern-language class. Their subject matter is frequently not conducive to free and unselfconscious discussion and their vocabulary is likely to include many low-frequency words. It is of greatest importance, however, to respect pupils' natural tastes in subject matter and not be misled by the abundance of juvenile writing fitted to the reading ability of elementary students into giving this to adolescent or mature minds for reading exercise.

Drama is not popular as reading material in the first two years

[1] "Psychology and the Pedagogy of Adolescence," *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. 5 (1897), pp. 265–275.

[2] See A. G. Grace, "Reading Interests of Adults," *J. Ed. Res.*, Vol. 9 (April, 1929), pp. 265–276; and Emma B. Grant and M. L. White, "Study of Children's Choices of Reading Material," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 26 (April, 1925), pp. 671–678.

of the course. The form is a stumbling block, and the content has usually been developed for mature minds, but this is a type of literature that has certain definite merits for language study and might well be used in the language class much more than it now is. Drama is not only a highly concentrated and compact form of writing, being accordingly economical of study time and effort, but it also requires of the reader more constructive imagination and so stimulates more creative thought and discussion than do the more discursive forms, such as the novel. Drama should be used in the foreign-language course at a stage when reading is fairly rapid so that attention can center on outlines of action rather than on detail, and class discussion can consequently deal with the thought-content.

The Committee on Reading of the National Society for the Study of Education lists the following categories of reading material [1] on the basis of their possible appeal to pupil interest: (1) books containing valuable information but too uninteresting for continous reading, to be used only for reference; (2) books giving valuable information in an interesting and readable way — Parkman's *The Jesuit in America*, for example; (3) books with high interest revealing truths about human experience but dealing with fictitious rather than actual happenings; (4) books interesting to the undiscriminating, attempting unsuccessfully to present truths about human experience; (5) fanciful books of fun and nonsense, possessing considerable interest but little literary value.

W. V. Kaulfers' ideas about the importance of broadening the range of subjects included in modern-language teaching [2] are worthy of note in connection with the choice of reading materials.

[1] *Twenty-fourth Yearbook.* Compare also W. S. Gray and R. Monroe, *The Reading Interests and Habits of Adults* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929); H. B. Bruner, "Determining Basic Reading Materials through a Study of Children's Interests and Adult Judgments," *Teachers College Record* (Jan., 1929), pp. 285–309; A. L. Grace, *op. cit.;* A. M. Jordan, *Children's Interests in Reading* (University of North Carolina Press, Chapel Hill; 1926).

[2] "The Need of a New Concept of the Foreign Language Curriculum," *H.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1937), pp. 155–168.

The importance of selecting materials to build up an understanding of the foreign culture is generally recognized. It was unanimously agreed by six hundred New York City teachers that the material in the language course should contribute to the student's background of knowledge relevant to the language he studies. Knowledge of the literature, art, history, geography, politics, and various other aspects of life of the peoples using the language should develop from the reading done in the course.

R. Hendrix and R. E. Monroe [1] emphasize the importance of using this kind of material for language study. I. W. Brock [2] specifies that in the reading of the language course such phases of the foreign civilization should be covered as fine art, biography, literature, economics, geography, labor problems. E. M. White discusses the essential features of a good text [3] and H. C. McElroy gives us a scale for judging texts.[4] Alexander Green states that reading should be chosen for its cultural value and should present a modern point of view toward the life, history, and geography of the regions associated with the language.[5] Many teachers use a variety of reading materials for this purpose, foreign-language periodicals and newspapers along with books.[6] Lists of newspapers useful in this regard are given on page 443.

Every culture studied in the modern-language class has produced a body of literature, some of it classical, that richly reveals its own character through factual information or less direct suggestion. A considerable number of the writings chosen for

[1] "A Social Approach to the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (April, 1935), pp. 527–536.

[2] Social Emphasis in Language Work," *Educa.*, Vol. 54 (May, 1934), pp. 536–538.

[3] "The Selection of High School Texts in the Modern Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (April, 1935), pp. 481–488.

[4] "Selecting a Basic Textbook," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (Oct., 1934), pp. 5–8.

[5] "French Class Texts Published in the United States," *F.R.*, Vol. 1 (Nov., 1927), pp. 53–62.

[6] E. P. Appelt, "Deutsche Zeitungen als Lesestoff," *G.Q.*, Vol. 5 (May, 1932), pp. 131–139.

class use should be selected for this reason. Perhaps one sixth of the year's reading should be chosen for the contributions it may make to the development of knowledge about the foreign life. If, for example, six books are to be read in a year, one of these might be on the foreign civilization. In the elementary course, before the students are able to read more definitely literary material, informational reading may be done to a greater extent.

The following lists of French, German, and Spanish literary works, classified according to the geographical regions with which they deal, are designed for the guidance of teachers who are interested in the foreign culture. Where any particular interest in any one of these regions exists or is aroused, it may well be developed by the literature that depicts it.

FRENCH

ALPES

Balzac, H. *Médécin de campagne*
Bordeaux, H. *Les yeux qui sourient*
—— *Les Roquevillard*

ALSACE

Acker, P. *En pays l'Alsace*
Bazin, K. *Les Oberlé*
—— *Les nouveaux Oberlé*
Erckmann-Chatrian. *Histoire des paysans*
—— *L'ami Fritz*
—— *Contes des bords du Rhin*
—— *Histoire d'un sous-maître*
—— *Contes et romans alsaciens*
Vallotin, B. *On changerait le cœur de place*

ANJOU

Balzac, H. *Eugénie Grandet*
Bazin, R. *Stephanette*

ARDENNES

Guillaumin, E. *Près du sol*
Theuriet, A. *Souvenir des vertes saisons*
—— *Reine des bois*

ARGONNE

TILLIER, A. *Le Saint-Nicolas*

ARMAGNAC

PESQUIDOUX. *Chez nous*
—— *Sur la glèbe*

AUVERGNE

BALZAC, H. *La peau de chagrin*
GALBERT, J. *Veillées d'Auvergne*
POURRAT, H. *A la belle bergère*
—— *Quand Gaspard de guerre revint*
SAND, G. *La ville noire*
VERMENOUSE, A. *Mon Auvergne*
—— *Fleur de Brousse*

BERRY

GUILLAUMIN, E. *La vie d'un simple*
HÉMON, LOUIS. *Maria Chapdelaine*
LAPAIRE, M. *Le pays berrichon*
—— *Âmes berrichons*
SAND, G. *La mare au diable*
—— *Les maîtres sonneurs*
—— *La petite Fadette*

BOULLONAIS

HAMP, P. *Le travail invincible*

BOURBON

GUILLAUMIN, E. *Dialogues bourbonnais*

BOURGOGNE

CASIN, P. *L'Hôtellerie du Bacchus sans tête*
ESTAUNIÉ, E. *L'Appel de la route*
—— *Le ferment*
—— *Les choses voient*
KUYSMAN, J. *L'Oblat*
ROLLAND, R. *Colas Breuguon*

BRETAGNE

BAZIN, R. *Donatienne*
—— *La closerie de Champdolent*
CHAMPION, P. *Françoise au calvaire*
CHEVRILLON, A. *L'Enchantement breton*

DAUDET, A. *La première neige*
LE BRAZ, A. *Vieilles histoires du pays breton*
—— *Contes de soleil et de la brume*
—— *La légende de la mort*
—— *Au pays des pardons*
—— *Gardien du phare*
LE COFFIC, C. *L'Abbesse de Guérande*
—— *Gens de mer*
—— *La payse*
—— *Le crucifix de Keraliés*
LOTI, P. *Mon frère Yves*
—— *Pêcheur d'Islande*
—— *Matelot*
SÉBILLOT, P. *Contes de la Haute Bretagne*

CÉVENNES

FABRE, F. *L'Abbé Tigrane*

CHAMPAGNE

BALZAC, H. *Le député d'Arcis*

CHARTRES

KUYSMAN, J. *La cathédrale*

CORSE

BALZAC, H. *Contes*
MAUPASSANT. *Contes*
MÉRIMÉE, P. *Mateo Falcone*
—— *Colomba*
—— *Contes*

DAUPHINÉ

BALZAC, H. *Médécin de campagne*
BERRET, P. *Au pays des brûleurs des loups*

FRANCHE-COMPTÉ

FAINE, H. *A travers le Jura*
NODIER, C. *Voyages pittoresques et romantiques*

LANGUEDOC

FABRE, F. *Mon oncle Célestin*
—— *Barnabé*

LIMOUSIN

BALZAC, H. *Le curé de village*

LORRAINE

BARRÈS, M. *Les déracinés*
—— *La colline inspirée*

MASSIF CENTRAL

MAUPASSANT. *Mont Oriol*

NIVERNAIS

TILLIER, A. *Mon oncle Benjamin*

NORMANDIE

BALZAC, H. *Le cabinet des antiques*
—— *La vieille fille*
DE MAUPASSANT, G. *Contes choisis*
FLAUBERT, G. *Un cœur simple*
—— *Madame Bovary*
FRANCE, A. *Pierre Nozière*
GAUTIER, T. *En voyage*

PARIS

HAMP, P. *Les métiers blessés*
—— *Marée fraîche*

PAYS BASQUE

LOTI, P. *Ramuntcho*

PICARDIE

BAZIN, R. *Gingolph abandonné*
PERROCHON, E. *Nêne*
—— *Les gardiennes*

PROVENCE

BOURGET, P. *Lazarine*
—— *Laurence Albani*
DAUDET, A. *Lettres de mon moulin*
—— *Tartarin*
—— *Numa Roumestan*
—— *Contes de lundi*

RHIN

DUMAS, A. *Excursions sur le bord du Rhin*

SAVOIE

BORDEAUX, H. *La neige sur le pas*
—— *La chartreuse du reposoir*
—— *La robe de laine*
—— *La maison*
—— *Promenades en Savoie*
—— *Le pays natal*
—— *La peur de vivre*

TOURAINE

BALZAC, H. *L'illustre Godissart*
—— *Le curé de Tours*
—— *Le lys dans la vallée*
BOYLESVE, P. *Madelaine jeune femme*
—— *L'Enfant à la balustrade*
—— *La jeune fille bien élevée*
—— *Mademoiselle Cloque*
—— *La marchande de petits pains pour les canards*
—— *Les Tourangées*
—— *Mon amour*
—— *La becquée*
DE VIGNY, A. *Cinq mars*
FLAUBERT, G. *Par les champs et par les grèves*
THEURIET, A. *Le bleu et le noir*
—— *Le chemin de bois*

VENDÉE

BAZIN, R. *La terre qui meurt*
—— *Le blé qui lève*
CHATEAUBRIAND, A. *La Brière*
—— *M. des Lourdines*
PERGAUD, L. *De Goupil à Margot*
THEURIET, A. *Maison de deux barbeaux*

GERMAN

BADEN

HANSJAKOB, HR. Ausgewählte Erzählungen
SCHEFFEL. *Der Trompeter von Säkkingen*
SCHMIDTHENNER, AD. Novellen
VILLINGER, HERMINE. *Schwarzwaldgeschichten*, u.a.

BAYERN

GANGHOFER, L. *Der Dorfapostel, Der hohe Schein*, u.a.
THOMA, HANS und LUDWIG. Viele Werke

BERLIN

BEREND, ALICE. Geschichten und Romane
FECHTER, PAUL. *Die Kletterstange*, u.v.a.
HOLZ und SCHLAF. *Papa Hamlet, Die Familie Selike, Neue Gleise*
KRETZER, M. Romane und Erzählungen; z.B., *Meister Trimpe, Das Gesicht Christi*
SCHLAF, J. Erzählungen, Dramen, z.B. *In Dingsda, Stille Welten*
SEIDEL, H. *Vorstadtgeschichten*, und Novellen
VIEBIG, C. *Das tägliche Brot, Die vor den Toren*, u.v.a.
WOLZOGEN, E. VON. *Der Kraftmaier*, u.a.

BODENSEE

SCHOLZ. *Der Bodensee, Wanderungen*

BRANDENBURG

ALEXIS. Romane
FONTANE. Romane, Erzählungen, und *Wanderungen durch die Mark Brandenburg*

DÜSSELDORF

VIEBIG, C. *Die vom Rhein, Die Wacht am Rhein*

EIFEL

VIEBIG, C. *Kinder der Eifel, Das Kreuz im Venn*

FRANKFURT

HERZOG, R. *Das Lebendlied*
WASSERMANN, JACOB. *Christian Wahnschaffe*

DIE HALLIGEN

BIERNATSKI, G. C. *Die Hallig*

HAMBURG

ERNST, OTTO. Romane und Novellen, darunter *Asmus Semper*, u.a.
FRAPAN, ILSE. *Hamburger Novellen, Zwischen Elbe und Alster*, u.a.

HANOVER U. WESERLAND

SOHNREY, HR. *Die hinter den Bergen, Verschworen — Verloren, Im grünen Klee — im weiszen Schnee, Der Bruderhof*

HARZ

HEINE. *Die Harzreise*

HESSEN

HOLZAMER, W. *Peter Nockler, Der arme Lukas*
SCHÄFER, W. *Mannsleut, Westernwalder Bauerngeschichten*

KÖNIGREICH SACHSEN

SCHINDLER, W. *Dorfgeschichten, Dorfleute*, u.a.

DIE LAUSITZ

POLENZ, W. VON. *Büttnerbauer, Der Pfarrer von Breitendorf*, u.a.

LÜBECK

MANN, T. *Die Buddenbrooks*

LÜNEBURGER HEIDE

LÖNS. *Werwolf, In der Lüneburger Heide, Aus Wald und Heide, Dahinten in der Heide*, etc.
SPECKMANN, D. *Heidjers Heimkehr*. Gesamtausgabe seiner Werke

MECKLENBURG

DREYER, MAX. *Nah Huus*
GRIESE, F. Fast sämtliche Werke
REUTER, F. Werke

MÜNCHEN

CONRAD, M. G. Romane und Erzählungen, darunter *Was die Isar rauscht*

NIEDERSACHSEN

BESTE, C. *Das heidnische Dorf*, u.a.
FALLADA. *Bauern, Bonzen, und Bomben*
FRENSSEN, G., und KRÖGER, TIM. Fast sämtliche Werke
SÖHLE, KARL. *Friede auf Erden*, u.a.

NORDDEUTSCHLAND

RAABE. Romane und Erzählungen
TROJAN, J. *Von Strand und Heide*, u.a.

OESTERREICH

BILLINGER, H. *Rauhnacht*, u.a.
EBNER-ESCHENBACH. Romane und Erzählungen
RAINALTER, E. H. *Sturm überm Land*, u.a.
ROSEGGER, P. Werke, besonders *Volksleben in Steiermark*
SAAR, F. VON. Novellen und Erzählungen
SCHÖNHERR, KARL. Dramen und Erzählungen

OSTPREUSSEN

MIEGEL, A. *Geschichten aus Alt-Preussen*, u.a.
SUDERMANN, H. Novellen und Dramen, *Frau Sorge*, *Litauische Geschichten*, *Johannesfeuer*, etc.
WICHERT, E. *Die Magd des Jürgen Doskocil*

OSTSEE

DREYER, MAX. *Ohm Peter*
FECHTER, PAUL. *Die Fahrt nach der Ahnfrau*

POMMERN

HOFFMANN, HANS. Geschichten aus Hinterpommern.

POSEN UND POLEN

FREYTAG. *Soll und Haben*, u.a.
VIEBIG, C. *Das schlafende Heer*, *Die Rosenkranzjungfer*, u.a.

PREUSSEN

KLEIST, H. VON. *Prinz Friedrich von Homburg*
TRINIUS. *Vom grünen Strande der Spree*, u.a.
WILDENBRUCH, E. VON. Dramen.

RHEINGEGEND

BAUER, ALBERT. *Hunsrücker Bauern*
GOETHE. *Sesenheim*, u.a.
HERZOG, R. *Die Burgkinder*, *Die vom Niederrhein*, *Die Hanseaten*.
KNEIP, JACOB. *Hampit der Jäger*
LAUFF, JOS. VON. *O du mein Niederrhein*, *Pittje Pittjewit*, u.a.
SCHÄFER, W. *Rheinische Novellen*, u.a.
SCHIESTL-BENTLAGE, M. *Das blaue Moor*, u.a.
SCHMIDTBONN, W. *Rheinische Geschichten*, u.a.
VIEBIG, C. *Rheinlandstöchter*, *Die Wacht am Rhein*, *Naturgewalten*, *Das Weiberdorf*, u.a.

DIE RUHR

HERZOG, R. *Die Wiskottens*

SCHLESIEN

HAUPTMANN, G. Werke
HAUPTMANN, KARL. Werke
KELLER, PAUL. *Die Heimat*, *Waldwinter*, *Der Sohn der Hagar*, *Im Bergland erträumt*, u.v.m.
STEHR, H. *Der begrabene Gott*, *Auf Leben und Tod*, u.v.m.

SCHLESWIG-HOLSTEIN

BARTELS, A. *Die Ditmarschen, Dietrich Seebrand*, u.a.
FRENSSEN. *Jörn Uhl, Hilligenlei, Die Sandgräfin*
GROTH, KLAUS. *Quickborn*, u.a.
STORM. *Der Schimmelreiter* und vieles andere
VOIGT-DIETRICHS. *Schleswig-Holsteiner Landleute*, und zahlreiche andere Werke

SCHWABEN

DÖRFLER, PETER. Erzählungen und Romane

SCHWARZWALD

BUSSE, ERIS. *Schwarzwald-Trilogie, Bauernadel*, u.a.

SCHWEIZ

BITZIUS, A. (Jeremias Gotthelf). Romane und Erzählungen
HEER, J. C. Erzählungen und Novellen. *Der Wetterwart, An heiligen Wassern*, u.a.
KELLER, G. Romane und Erzählungen
PESTALOZZI. *Gertrud und Lienhardt, Wie Gertrud ihre Kinder lehrt*, u.a.
ZAHN, ERNST. Erzählungen und Novellen, *Lukas Hochstrasser*, u.a.

SPREEWALD

BITTRICH, MAX. *Spreewaldgeschichten, Neue Spreewaldgeschichten*

STEIERMARK

ROSEGGER, P. Romane und Erzählungen, darunter *Der Waldschulmeister, Waldheimat*, u.a.

THÜRINGEN

BÖHLAU, HELENE. *Verspielte Leute, Das Recht der Mutter*, u.a.
LIENHARD, F. Thuringer Tagebuch. Dramen
LUDWIG, O. *Heiterethei, Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, u.a.
TRINIUS, A. *Thüringen Wanderbuch, Unter Tannen und Farren*

WESTFALEN UND WESERLAND

BEREN-TOTENOHLS, JOSEFA, *Der Femhof*
DROSTE-HÜLSHOFF. Erzählungen und Geschichten
IMMERMANN. *Der Oberhof*
STRAUSS und TORNEY, LULU VON. *Bauernstolz*, u.v.a.
WINCKLER, JOSEF. *Pumpernickel*

WIEN

SCHNITZLER. Dramen und Erzählungen. Romane

WÜRTTEMBERG

FINCKH, LUDWIG. Werke
HESSE, H. *Peter Camenzind, Unterm Rad*
MÖRIKE, E. Werke, besonders *Stuttgarter Hutzelmännlein*
SCHEFFEL, V. VON. *Ekkehard*

SPANISH

ANDALUCÍA

ACOSTA, J. *Entre faldas anda el juego*
ALVAREZ QUINTERO, S. *La madrecita*
BLASCO IBÁÑEZ, V. *La bodega*
DE ESCALANTE, A.. *Del Manzanares al Darro*
PALACIO VALDÉS, A. *La Hermana San Sulpicio*
RUEDA, S. *El patio andaluz*
—— *La reja*
SERAFÍN, V. *Estébañez Calderón*
VALERA, J. *Doña Luz*
—— *Pepita Jiménez*

ASTURIAS

CANEJA, D. *La Cumbre*
PALACIO VALDÉS, A. *José*
—— *La aldea perdida*

AVILA

AZORÍN. *Un pueblecito*
—— *La dama errante*

BALEARICS

BLASCO IBÁÑEZ, V. *Los muertos mandan*

BILBAO

DE UNAMUNO, M. *Paz en la guerra*

CANTÁBRICA

DE PEREDA, J. M. *Peñas arriba*
—— *El sabor de la tierrucha*
—— *La puchera*
—— *Sotileza*

CASTILE

MESA. E. *Viajes*

CATALUÑA

CATALÁ, V. *Dramas rurales*

CORDOVA

AZORÍN. *Estremadura*
—— *La feria de los discretos*

GALICIA

PÉREZ LUGIN, A. *Enrique Pérez Escrich*
—— *De tal palo tal astilla*

MADRID

ALARCÓN, P. A. *El Capitán Veneno*
ARNICHES, C. *Sainetes*
BLASCO, E. *Madrid pintoresco*
GALDÓS, P. *Doña Perfecta*

RÍO TINTO

ESPINA, C. *El metal de los muertos*

SPAIN

ALARCÓN, P. A. *Viajes por España*
—— *Cosas que fueron*
—— *El sombrero de tres picos*
—— *Novelas cortas* (2 série), *Historietas*
ALAS, L. C. *La regenta*

The extent to which available texts may be effective in developing factual knowledge about foreign cultures has been studied by various persons under the sponsorship of the Study.

Miss G. M. Gilman in 1930 published the report of her study, the earliest of those undertaken.[1] In it she listed sixteen literary works and six beginners' books that she found commonly used in the high schools of Illinois. These she analyzed to discover their cultural content. Headings used were those catalogued by the Library of Congress. References were classified as allusion, men-

[1] "The Cultural Material in the French Curriculum of Illinois High Schools," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 225–277 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

tion, statement, picture, description, explanation, or exposition. References that are listed as "mentions" predominated in sixteen of the texts, "statements" in one text, and "notes" in two. References to geography predominated in five texts, history in three; social life and customs in three each; marriage customs and rites in three each; classical antiquity, education, prisons, Catholic church, and clothing in one each. The following subjects were found treated as items of the second-rank category: history, social life and customs, Catholic church, each in two texts; railroads, clothing, literature, finance, each in one text. Aesthetic elements proved too difficult to classify and were therefore not listed.

The texts analyzed were the following:

AUGIER and SANDEAU. *Le gendre de monsieur Poirier.* Hawkins.[1] Holt
BALZAC. *Eugénie Grandet.* Jenkins. Holt
BOVÉE. *Première année de français.* Ginn
DAUDET. *Le petit chose.* François. Ginn
DUMAS. *La tulipe noire.* Fontaine. Heath
FRAZER and SQUAIR. *Complete French Grammar.* Heath
—— *A Shorter French Course.* Heath
GUERBER. *Contes et légendes*, première partie. Crosse. American Book Company
HALÉVY. *L'Abbé Constantin.* Logie. Heath
HUGO. *Hernani.* Matzke. Heath
—— *Les Misérables.* Buffum. Holt
LABICHE. *La Grammaire.* Levi. Heath
LABICHE and MARTIN. *La poudre aux yeux.* Levi. Holt
PERRICHON. *Le Voyage de M. Perrichon.* François. Allyn and Bacon
LOTI. *Pêcheur d'Islande.* Mason. Holt
MALOT. *Sans famille.* François and Greenberg. Allyn and Bacon
MEILHAC and HALÉVY. *Three French Comedies.* (*L'été de la Saint-Martin*, ed. François; *La lettre chargée*, ed. Labiche; *Vent d'ouest*, ed. d'Herville and House.) Ginn
MÉRAS and MÉRAS. *Le premier livre.* American Book Company
MÉRIMÉE. *Colomba.* Hawkins. Holt
MOLIÈRE. *Le bourgeois gentilhomme.* Warren. Heath
SAND. *La mare au diable.* Brooks. Scribner
WOOLEY and BOURDIN. *French Reader for Beginners.* Heath

[1] Following the title are listed the names of editor and publisher. It is necessary to designate edition in this way since it was found that much of the data concerning cultural material is found in the editorial material.

A similar study is that already cited by Harry and Grace Kurz [1] of the ten most commonly used French texts reported by one hundred colleges: Buffum's *French Short Stories* (Holt), Smith and Greenleaf's *French Reader* (Holt), Daudet's *Lettres de mon moulin*, edited by Robert (Heath), de Sauze's *Contes gais* (Winston), Daniels' *Contes de la France contemporaire* (Heath), Olmsted and Barton's *Elementary French Reader* (Holt), About's *Le roi des montagnes*, edited by Logie (Heath), Pargment's *La France et les Français* (Macmillan), Dondo's *Pathelin et autres pièces* (Heath), Kurz's *Lectures pour tous* (Century). The technique employed in analyzing subject references in these was the same as in the preceding study. The number of entries found under twenty-five headings was as follows: geography, 1527; literature, 1449; history, 1009; religion, 432; Paris, 395; provincial life, 394; currency and measurements, 195; social life and customs, 188; foreigners, 186; classical antiquity, 169; art and artists; 163; education, 131; government administration, 129; buildings and architecture, 117; industries, 103; music, 82; language, 61; French traits, 51; science, 44; French colonies and their customs, 41; Bible, 40; decorations and orders, 31; academies and prizes, 16; travel and transportation, 14; Greek traits, Athens, contemporary Frenchmen, Corsican customs, and Norse mythology, 1 each.

A third study, developed on practically the same technique, was made by Margaret and John Van Horne of twenty-one commonly used Spanish texts.[2] The texts examined were the following, the order of listing here being that of frequency of use.

VALDÉS. *La Hermana San Sulpicio.* Gill. Holt
CARRIÓN and AZA. *Zaragüeta.* Hills and Reinhardt. Heath
ESRICH. *Fortuna.* Hills and Reinhardt. Heath
DE ALARCÓN. *El capitán Veneno.* Burnett. Sanborn

[1] "The Realia Found in French Readers Used in College Courses," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 281–324 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

[2] "The Cultural Content of Spanish Reading Material at the Junior College Level," *op. cit.*, pp. 327–363.

BENAVENTE. *Tres comedias: Sin querer, De pequeñas causas, Los intereses creados.* Van Horne. Heath
VALDÉS. *José.* Davidson. Heath
ROMERO. *Historia de España.* Navarro. Heath.
HILL and BUCETA. *Antología de cuentos españoles.* Heath
GALDÓS. *Marianela.* Geddes and Joselyn. Heath
WILKENS. *Beginner's Spanish Reader.* Holt
ALARCÓN. *El final de Norma.* Gutierrez and Ingraham. Holt
GALDÓS. *Doña Perfecta.* Lewis. American Book Company
DORADO. *España pintoresca.* Ginn
QUINTERO. *Doña Clarines y Mañana de Sol.* Morley. Heath
ALARCÓN. *El sombrero de tres picos.* Bourland. Holt
HILLS AND CANO. *Cuentos y leyendas.* Heath
DE CERVANTES. *Selections from Don Quixote.* Ford. Heath
AZORÍN. *Las confesiones de un pequeño filósofo.* Imbert. Heath
VALERA. *El pájaro verde.* Brownell. Ginn
MARTINEZ SIERRA. *Canción de Cuna.* Espinosa. Heath
ISAACS. *María.* Keniston. Ginn

The writers found in these the following subjects in the indicated frequency: geography, 379; life and customs, 313; literature, 250; religion, 225; art, 169; politics and government, 136; history, 129; food and drink, 111; education, 84; clothing and dress, 82; law, 80; finance, 73, city plans, 63; languages, 42; theaters, 37; nature, 36; institutions, 35; products, 33; railways and transportation, 33; buildings, 31; music, 29; agriculture, 27; national characteristics, 27; military administration, 19; weights and measures, monuments, armaments, each 18; commerce, 17; heraldry, 17; climate, 16; newspapers, 15; mines, 15; marriage customs, 14; science, 13; economics, 9; social conditions, 6; libraries, 4; medicine, 2; philosophy, customs, banditry, bibliography, each 1.

E. G. Babbitt and J. B. Tharp show that the reading material in French grammar texts is becoming more cultural.[1] Five texts, selected as the most popular in use, were studied and references to cultural material tabulated. The method of study was that used in the Gilman, Van Horne, and Kurz studies, but

[1] "The French Grammar Text Grows Socially Minded," *F.R.*, Vol. 10 (Feb., 1937), pp. 293–298.

with an improvement in weighting that makes the results more specific. The following table shows their findings.

	Total References Unweighted	Total References Weighted
Dondo. *Modern French Course*	1848	2940
Eddy-Cochran. *Heath-Chicago French Series* .	1654	2103
Bovee & Lindquist. *Une aventure français* .	1467	2410
Churchman, Atwood, & Racine. *First Book in French*	1182	2784
Smith & Roberts. *French Book One* . . .	296	513

It was found that in two of the texts geography was the subject most frequently treated, in two it took second place, and in one third place. History takes first place once, second place once, and third place once. The important categories with total number of references to each in the five texts is as follows: geography, 782; history, 738; literature, 474; buildings and architecture, 450; Paris, 450; food and drink, 320; travel and transportation, 319; government administration, 292; currency and measurements, 266; business and professions, 253; social life, customs, and recreation, 238; social conditions, 191; religion, 180; science, 174; home and home life, 158; classical antiquity, 133; provincial life, 125; education, 87; art and artists, 86; city plans, 86; language, 85; and thirteen other subjects ranging from 75 to 3 times each.

A similar, although shorter, study for German is that of Virginia Stockhausen,[1] who studied six elementary texts: the *Heath-Chicago German Series*, in four volumes — *Allerlei, Anekdoten und Erzählungen, Eulenspiegel und Münchhausen, Fünf berühmte Märchen; Immensee; Germelshausen; Höher als die Kirche; Klein Heine; Emil und die Detektive.* These were found to contain

[1] "The Cultural Content of Reading Texts," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 28 (Oct., 1936), pp. 255–260.

informational material as follows: *Immensee*, a total of 260 items, among which plant and animal life occurred 57 times and social life and customs, 51 times; *Allerlei*, a total of 54 items, among which social life and customs appeared 26 times, and plant and animal life, 9 times; *Anekdoten und Erzählungen*, a total of 96 items, with music 36 times, and history 31; *Eulenspiegel und Münchhausen*, 95 items, with geography appearing 23 times, and literature 18 times; *Fünf berühmte Märchen*, a total of 20 items, with geography 10 times and literature 5; *Germelshausen*, a total of 130 items, with social life and customs 33 times and plant and animal life 17; *Höher als die Kirche*, a total of 281 items, with history 42 and geography 36 times; *Klein Heine*, total of 153 items, with social life and customs 42 times and education 23; *Emil und die Detektive*, total of 484 items, with transportation appearing 108 times and geography 78. For all the texts except *Allerlei* the references were predominantly designated as "mentions." The author concludes that the cultural content of the Heath-Chicago series is not high, but that of the other texts studied is rich and varied.

E. E. Hicks [1] has shown that emphasis must be put on this information in teaching if the cultural objective is to be attained. The fact that it is found in the text does not guarantee that the students will assimilate it.

The Van Hornes [2] warn that the statistics compiled in these numerical counts should not be the sole determinants in selecting reading texts. The counts emphasize commonplace facts, while universal and more fundamental truths are neglected. Rating of books according to their score on these counts would favor prepared informational readers at the expense of literary material dealing more especially with the imaginative, poetic, philo-

[1] *Controlled Experiment in the Teaching of Historical Content and Background of Caesar's Gallic War* (Doctor's dissertation, University of Pittsburgh).

[2] "The Cultural Content of Spanish Reading Material at the Junior College Level," *Studies in Modern Language Teaching* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930), pp. 327–363.

sophical, or the romantic. The studies, however, give valuable help to teachers who would develop special interests in their classes.

Histories of civilization will often be found useful, in some instances providing valuable reading exercise material in the foreign language, in others presenting the historical material in English. Rambaud's is the standard text on French history; Steinhausen's and Hofstaetter and Panzer's are the standard German histories; Altimira and Crevea's, the Spanish; and Burkhardt and Marinoni's, the Italian. On pages 438–439 of the Appendix is fuller bibliographical information about these books. All except the Marinoni and Burkhardt are written in their respective languages and will be found too difficult for any but advanced classes. They will, however, prove valuable as reference books for teachers.

There are also histories of civilization that have been prepared for school classes with limited command of foreign languages. Some of these are in English; the others are written simply in the foreign language. These books are naturally much shorter than the great standard histories, only selected topics being treated, and treatment of these being in no way exhaustive. *Histoire de la civilization française*, by des Granges and Towles, and Handschin's *Introduction to German Civilization* [1] are designed as texts for college classes or as a guide for high-school teachers in preparing and presenting material on the foreign culture.

Krause's *España y la cultura española* is useful as a class text in college or advanced high-school classes.[2] Capocelli's *Italia nel passato e nel presente* [3] is a compilation of selections from great Italian writers designed as a reading text for classes. It contains useful glossary, notes, and exercises.

There is, however, no one textbook on the civilization relevant to any language course that can be recommended for all classes. There are on the market large numbers of beginners' language

[1] Both published by Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York.
[2] D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.
[3] Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York.

books and readers that present much of this material in a quantity and a fashion that will often prove more effective than the more lengthy and specialized work. Each individual charged with the responsibility of selecting texts must acquaint himself with available books and with the needs of the classes in which they will be used. There are certain considerations that he may then find helpful in guiding his selection.

A text presenting a study of the foreign culture in the foreign language must be written by a master of the language. Literary style on the part of the author will be the first desideratum of such books. The text should be designed for a specific school level and should select and present subject matter ably, and in all other respects it must be suited for pupils of the maturity level for which it is designed. Illustration should be ample and effective in arousing interest, cultivating taste, and conveying knowledge. Editorial notes and learning exercises may be necessary.

The content of the text on the foreign civilization must be more systematically and painstakingly reviewed than that in other types of reading material. To know the general sequence of the narrative and to be able to translate passages from it are not sufficient here. Questions of fact must be emphasized in reviewing the reading: "What is the French custom in regard to social calls?" "At what age do German children enter kindergarten?" "What are the common recreations of the members of the Spanish family?" "When and how long are school vacations in Italy?" "What French industries, exports, and imports are of outstanding importance?" Such questions as these must aim to summarize the content of the text and to fix it in the pupils' minds.

Reading of the civilization textbook should be supplemented by study of pictures, realia, maps, statistics, music, and whatever other exhibits may be practicable and desirable. The classroom or department bulletin should also be used continuously to keep students alert to conditions in the country they are studying.

COURSES IN FOREIGN LITERATURE

The responsibility of the modern-language department for developing a knowledge of the foreign literatures is being evidenced by the increasing appearance of literature-survey courses in high schools and colleges. The extent to which such courses are actually being given has been studied by E. K. Mapes [1] in the field of Spanish. He sent a questionnaire to 251 colleges and got the following data in reply: 75 institutions give such courses, totaling 109 courses; 54 of the courses were of the survey type; next in popularity were courses in the novel and modern texts; most of the survey courses began with the nineteenth century. Schools reporting that they did not offer such courses gave as their reasons inadequacy of time, small enrollments of advanced students, or lack of library facilities.

H. Alpern's New-Type Examination in Spanish Literature and his Modern Test in Modern Literature evidence the existence of an interest in this type of study. A list of seven phrases is given that the pupil is asked to define in connection with the "*generación de '98.*" "Name three good books on contemporary Spanish literature, and very briefly evaluate each." "Give the original title and author of each of the following thirty translations." The pupil must identify the authors or fictitious characters listed or the piece of writing described in a sentence.

There are excellent syllabi for courses in Italian literature by centuries.[2] W. M. Barlow[3] and A. Jorda[4] have made appeals for

[1] "The Teaching of Spanish-American Literature," *H.*, Vol. 14 (Nov., 1931), pp. 393–404.

[2] W. C. Bullock, "Syllabi of Literary Courses by Centuries," *It.*, Vol. 9 (June, 1932), pp. 39–94; Vol. 9 (June, 1932), pp. 71–80; Vol. 9 (Sept., 1932), pp. 109–113; T. Cloran, "Syllabi of Literary Courses by Centuries," *The Trecento*, *It.*, Vol. 11 (Dec., 1934), pp. 122–126; Vol. 12 (Mar., 1935), pp. 7–10; J. G. Fucella, "Syllabi of Literary Courses by Centuries," *The Seicento*, *It.*, Vol. 11 (Mar., 1934), pp. 12–14. Consult also the bibliography of French, German, Spanish, Italian literature on page 434 of the Appendix.

[3] "Read Spanish Books," *H.*, Vol. 7 (March, 1924), pp. 121–128.

[4] "Apologia Superflua," *H.*, Vol. 7 (Dec., 1924), pp. 396–397.

the wider reading of Spanish literature, suggesting various lines of development for the literature course. Agnes Brady [1] suggests ways to make Spanish literature popular in a woman's college.

It is impossible here to give an extended bibliography of translations [2] of foreign literary works available for such courses, but the *United States Catalog*, *Book Review Digest*,[3] and similar bibliographical indexes to be found in most public and college libraries aim at complete listings. Such publications are continually brought up to date; the most recent editions or supplements of them should be consulted. A bibliography of *Spanish Literature in English Translations* has also been compiled by A. Flores and E. Hale.[4] R. D. Cole [5] has prepared a bibliography that contains translations of foreign novels. German translations have been listed by B. Q. Morgan [6] and C. H. Handschin.[7]

Problems for Study

1. Make lists of reading material for use in a two- and in a three-year course in senior high school in French, German, Spanish, or Italian, introducing as many classics as you think advisable. Specify editions.
2. Make a list of biographies for reading in the French, German, Spanish, or Italian class as language exercise. Make a list of biographies in English to be assigned as outside reading for the same course.
3. Outline a class discussion of the thought-content of any French, German, Spanish, or Italian story suitable for class study.
4. Write out ten true-false statements about the content of a paragraph of some foreign-language text.
5. Work out a list of the most important material possessions of any one of the nations covered by a modern-language course. Make a list of its greatest institutions and spiritual resources.

[1] "Teaching of Spanish Literature," *H.*, Vol. 6 (Nov., 1923), pp. 318–322.

[2] See page 441 in the Appendix.

[3] Both published by the Wilson Company, New York.

[4] Also published by Wilson.

[5] "A List of Novels for Collateral Reading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (Jan., 1932), pp. 342–350.

[6] *A Bibliography of German Literature in English Translation* (University of Wisconsin Press, Madison, Wisconsin; 1922).

[7] *M.f.U.*, Vol. 28 (March and May, 1936), pp. 129–136, 227–229.

Chapter Ten

Use of Visual Materials and Realia

THE use of realia and other more exclusively visual materials serves at least two distinct important purposes in the modern-language classroom. It expedites the learning of foreign words and it aids the development of an understanding and an appreciation of the foreign civilization.

It is a well-established principle in education that mere verbal learning soon becomes uninteresting and unmeaningful. Children and grown-ups want to see and experience things, not merely hear about them. Teaching by words alone without introducing the learner to actual experience with the things studied and having him engage in some more or less motor activity with regard to them is unsatisfactory and in life would probably lead to unrealistic imaginings.

The objectifying of concepts to be taught has long been an accepted educational tenet, just as activity learning is today fully accepted as desirable in place of the old method of being told about experiences and activities. And visual materials are an essential to any program designed to supplant verbalism with concreteness in the modern-language class. One of the great historic advances in education was made when Comenius issued a language book containing pictures of the things told about. For many years educational theory rested content with these textbook pictures, but it has at last recognized the value of applying the principle much more widely. When our experience with an object is first-hand — when we see, touch, smell, lift, it — we get a visual image, a kinesthetic image, a temperature image, a feeling of weight, and possibly an olfactory image. These experiences make swift, direct, and abiding impressions on con-

sciousness. The response to verbal symbols for the object can never be so richly varied or so deeply experienced. Where experience with the actual object is directly associated with the verbal symbol, however, it lends force and permanence to the response to the word. By association, the reaction to the verbal symbol takes on much of the quality of first-hand experience and the word is more fully comprehended and better retained than when it is presented alone.

The younger and more inexperienced the learner, the more valuable will realia be to him as an aid in learning. Older persons have not only had more training in abstract thinking than children have, they also have more experience of foreign things through illustrations or actual experience. This experience can be drawn on to provide association with the verbal symbol. But the experience must be provided wherever and to whatever extent it is needed to give meaning and vitality to words.

The importance of building a background knowledge of the foreign civilization has already been discussed. Certain phases of this knowledge must depend on the use of visual- and sensory-appeal materials in the schoolroom. For not only will familiarity with the physical environment and material equipment of everyday life in the region to be studied be gained through these things, but to a considerable degree the spiritual and emotional quality of a culture is also suggested by them.

TYPES OF MATERIALS USEFUL

The materials usable in the schoolroom for sensory appeal are commonly referred to in the two categories, not properly discrete, of realia and visual materials.

Realia are that part of the schoolroom equipment made to be handled and seen. Statues, models, dolls, costumes, handwork, any objects designed, manufactured, or typically used in the regions being studied are the types of realia most commonly

used in the modern-language class. Visual materials — that is, pictures, maps, lantern slides, and other distinctly graphic and pictorial materials — are for obvious reasons of convenience found in greater quantity in language classrooms than are any of the more properly termed realia.

Specimens of the material resources and of the processed or manufactured or packaged goods of a region will contribute much to the pupil's consciousness of the equipment and habits of a people. Pictures of natural environment and of the changes wrought in it by man's efforts will contribute much to a feeling for the essential quality of life in any part of the world. Much light can be thrown on industrial, social, and political institutions by pictures or other visible or tangible evidence of the conditions in which they have developed and to which they have given rise. Methods of working, systems of transportation, habits of daily living, abilities, tastes, temperament, may all be revealed dramatically and impressively through concrete objects or representations of them.

The selection of visual materials and realia for the classroom will depend on the age and the interests of the students. Much material that will be of interest to adults will of course have no meaning for children. The younger the children the more important it is too that they be able to handle and use the equipment. It is very helpful if they can actually play with dolls, games, and toys that may be available as evidence of qualities of the civilization being studied.

For certain groups of students certain types of teaching materials will have a special appeal. Some groups may have a particular interest in art and handcrafts, some in industrial activity, some in sports and other forms of recreation, some in economic and political affairs. In each case materials relating to the special interest of the group should be provided.

There are certain pieces of visual-appeal equipment that should, however, be standard for every language classroom.

A minimum of such equipment for any school offering two years of modern-language study is the following:

1. One good map
2. Several less expensive maps
3. A daylight picture-projection screen or a projectoscope
4. Two or three good pictures for the classroom walls
5. A large collection of postcards or other pictures of foreign scenes

Many objects other than those indicated are desirable, but these might be considered minimum essentials for the language class. The cost of these is comparatively slight. The maps can be bought for a total of ten dollars, several good wall pictures for five, and an ample collection of picture prints for five or ten. The most expensive item on the list is the daylight screen or a projectoscope, but it is possible that several teachers might use this together.

While in some instances teachers may be able and willing to supply parts of the visual or other "real" equipment for their lessons from their own personal possessions, and some of it may be provided by pupils, a good deal should be bought and paid for out of school funds. It is accordingly important for the teacher to impress his administrative officers with the need for this part of his equipment. Unfortunately in only the best and most progressive schools is such material now commonly supplied to the language teacher. There are, however, valuable learnings to be derived from the making of visual materials that may have instructional value for the rest of the class. Such projects are discussed in this chapter in connection with the making of maps. Other creative activities along this line will suggest themselves, particularly on the lower grade levels, to the teacher with a special interest in art and handcrafts.

MAP STUDY

There should be always readily usable a large map of the country being studied that shows to all parts of the room at least

the political divisions and the largest or most important cities, rivers, lakes, and mountains.

In addition to this large map the class should have access to others showing population density, forest areas, chief resources and industries, linguistic areas, waterways, railroad and air lines, and chief agricultural and mining products. There should also be available historical maps showing the political divisions and the area of the country at various epochs. These maps may be borrowed from other departments of the school when special need for them arises.

A great deal of the work in connection with study of the foreign civilization should be directly related to map study. Various special studies designed to develop appreciation of the foreign civilization may take off from or be finally summarized in a study of the maps available to the class or in the making of maps. This map-making activity may often be made the focusing point for valuable and interesting studies.

It may be desirable to assign certain map projects to individual students, for there are always to be found students with special interests who can be stimulated and brought out by enlisting them in projects for which they are especially suited. The maps thus made by individual students may then be exhibited and become a stimulus to and a source of information for the class.

Sometimes it is well to assign a project to two students, letting one do the research and the other do the actual drawing and collect pictorial matter, and perhaps other material that may be made part of the map exhibit. Such an exhibit should be kept in the classroom long enough for everyone interested to see it and for the class to carry on discussions about it.

It will always be worth while for the pupils to become thoroughly familiar with the contour of the country they are studying. Drawing simplified outline maps is excellent exercise in this learning. Kullmer and Gérard's *Sketch Maps of France*[1] illus-

[1] Syracuse Publishing Company, Syracuse, New York; 1928.

trates the "roofed square" method of drawing the outline map of France. A "two-by-three" method of drawing the map of Germany [1] effectively impresses the outline on the pupil's mind. The map of Spain and Portugal may be simplified into a square with certain easily identifiable projections. The map of Italy may be made a boot.

Once the boundary outline is well established in the pupil's mind and satisfactorily indicated on paper, outstanding relief factors should be added to it — mountains, valleys, and rivers.

Biography study may also well be linked up with the study of maps. Birthplaces of persons encountered in reading may be added one by one on a map reserved for this purpose. At the end of the year it will be interesting to generalize concerning the parts of the country that produced the greatest numbers of famous persons. It will be found, for example, that the greatest number of famous Frenchmen came from Paris; in Germany and Spain and Italy either the greatest cities or the richest and oldest parts of the country have produced most of the famous people. Discussions of reasons for these facts will be stimulating and helpful.

A literary map of a country may also prove helpful. On this may be entered the names of great authors and schools of writers in the places where they carried on their greatest activity. Or the scenes of famous literary works may be indicated.

A student especially interested in industry or commerce may make a transportation map of the country he is studying. He will put into his map the main railways, bus routes, airlines, and rivers and canals, indicating the relative volume of freight traffic along each by the breadth of the line. Navigable portions of rivers should be marked also. With this map there should be prepared a statistical exhibit of the amounts of goods and passengers carried. Perhaps destinations may in some cases be indicated, and value of the traffic. There is ample information

[1] See the writer's *Introduction to German Civilization* (Prentice-Hall, Inc., New York; 1937).

easily available for this project. Encyclopedias, the *Statesman's Year-Book*, and various other reference or textbooks may furnish the data. The teacher may indicate more sources where facts can be found or written for.

A forestry and agricultural map may prove useful. The areas of the chief agricultural projects can be colored variously. Fertility of soil and elevation above sea level can also be indicated by variations in tone. The forested areas may all be shaded green, the densest ones dark green, the less dense, light and lighter, in as many degrees as it seems wise to show. A statistical exhibit accompanying either of these maps might show the percentage of the land in farms or forests, the proportions of leaf and "needle" forests or of various crops, and the quantity and value of the products of the industry. Fundamental economic conditions will be revealed by such a study.

Maps of imports and exports showing the chief shipping lines by land and water to foreign countries, with breadth of line to indicate the relative volume of freight moved, have interest and value. An accompanying statistical exhibit should show total exports and imports of staple raw materials, manufactured and semi-manufactured goods, food, agricultural products, etc.

Some boy will be sure to be interested in a map of the mining industries. The coincidence of mountains and mining districts will be considerable enough to start discussion. The statistical exhibits should show quantities, values, and possibly uses made of the products of these industries and the numbers of laborers employed by them.

A water-power map may show the rivers that furnish direct water power or electrical energy and the localities to which they furnish it. Or a power map may be made to show steam, electric, and gas power derived from the use of coal, oil, and gas as well as from water power. This map would show the location of great transforming plants like our Tennessee Valley Authority or the Edison power plants. In part these transforming plants would

coincide with the great industrial areas of the country. Water power from water wheels and wind power from windmills are not unknown even today in the countries commonly studied in the modern-language course and may be indicated on the map. Illustrations for this project would be attractive and instructive.

A map showing great localized and national festivals like the Wagner festival in Bayreuth, the Passion Play at Oberammergau, the Blessing of the Sea in Brittany, the Fiesta of San Isidro at Seville, and any of many possible others, with illustrations and perhaps exhibits of appropriate costumes and foods and other realia, will be very interesting and instructive.

Outline maps of important cities may also have value and interest for certain pupils. Such maps should show the general plan of streets and parks and the location of important buildings and other places of special interest. The whole class may participate in the making of maps and the project may be carried on throughout the entire course. A map of each of the cities that figure importantly in the reading should be made. In connection with making such a map pupils will do outside reading on historical, social, and economic facts about the city and report on this orally in class. A statistical exhibit may show data about population, government, chief industries, etc. The student illustrating the map may find ample pictures in periodicals, books, and advertising matter that call attention to local characteristics, festivals, occupations, etc., and may serve to bring out the individual flavor of the city.

A map showing the great inventions of a country may arouse interest and prove instructive. On it there may be named inventions and their inventors in the places where they were made. The illustrator may show pictures of the inventions and the inventors.

A climate map will sometimes have value. This map may be colored variously to indicate temperature. Winds should also be indicated, as well as the influence of the ocean or of ocean cur-

rents and other bodies of water, of mountain ranges, and of altitude. The teacher may supply information about the varying characteristics of the people living under the various conditions and suggest thought on the possible relation between temperament and climate.

The making of a map showing racial groups in France, Germany, Spain, and Italy may be useful for advanced students. In every one of the four countries commonly studied in the modern-language course there is still evidence of the original stocks; e.g., of Celt and Gaul and Roman in France; of the six original stems in Germany; traces of Romans, Goths, and Moors in Spain; and of old Latin stocks and Goths and Lombards in Italy. The seats of the various ethnological groups, as far as they are localized, can be shown by different colorings and their provenience, development, characteristics, costumes, etc., sketched.

There are, it is obvious, opportunities for projects allied with map-making that will interest everyone in the class. Boys may be interested generally in sports and in economic, industrial, commercial, and intellectual aspects of city life; girls may be more interested in education, art, sanitation, family life, charity and welfare work, churches, and the like.

PICTURES IN THE CLASSROOM

Good pictures for the classroom are almost essential to the development of a feeling for the foreign civilization. Such pictures contribute considerably to the pleasantness and beauty of the classroom atmosphere as well as contributing much of immediately practical value.

From a study of Millet's "The Man with the Hoe," for example, there may develop discussion or be assigned themes on such topics as, What kinds of implements and machinery does this French peasant use? What are the chief items of his food? What articles of clothing does he wear? Of what material are they

made? What crops does he raise? What schooling has he had? How do his children and his wife spend their time? How much does he earn, and how does he spend it? What is his religious belief and what are his religious practices? How does he spend his time when he is not working? Can he read; and if he can, what does he read? What satisfactions does he get out of life? Edward Markham, the poet, saw in this "Man with the Hoe" a down-trodden beast of travail; is the French peasant that? Why do you or do you not think so? In what ways is he better off than the "wage-slave" who operates a machine? In order to get acceptable themes written on any such subjects as these it would be necessary to have a class discussion of the subjects first, bringing into this discussion all necessary information and developing all essential vocabulary.

A collection of picture postcards and photographs or other prints of foreign scenes can be obtained cheaply and used with great effectiveness in the language classroom. The teacher should select these carefully to illustrate such varied themes as daily home, school, business, and social life, recreations, festivals, noted landscapes and waterscapes, famous men and women, important buildings, scenes from all branches of industry, commerce and public service including postal and telegraph service, street cleaning, garbage collection, police, schools, clinics, and hospitals.

It takes but a few minutes to assemble from a collection the proper cards to illustrate any text being read or subject being discussed and then to pass them about the class, or better still to turn on the electric current and show them on the daylight screen. The possession of such a screen or a projectoscope will add much to the convenience and pleasure and effectiveness of using pictures in the classroom. This apparatus has an advantage over the lantern projector because with it almost any small card or picture even when bound in a book can be shown, while lantern slides are not only expensive but limited in variety.

PROFESSIONAL LITERATURE ON USE OF REALIA AND VISUAL MATERIALS

E. Breazeale offers very good ideas of ways to use realia effectively without taking too much of the teacher's time.[1] C. Kinne [2] has reported the use of realia in an eight-week course on French history, with readings entirely in English. A. Dickson has prepared a valuable list of French realia with essential information for purchasing.[3] H. K. Helde has written an article presenting many suggestions for the use of realia in the French class.[4] The rich variety of useful Spanish realia is noted by R. Kennedy,[5] and a bibliography of such materials has been prepared by M. Miller, L. Berslin, and M. Harrison.[6] J. Moreno-Lacalle published a valuable report of a committee on Spanish realia.[7] E. Busch has a valuable article, "How We Can Learn to Understand Our Neighbors," [8] in which he gives stimulating suggestions for the use of Spanish realia. G. Kühne tells of "The Role of Realia in Teaching Modern Languages in Germany." [9] There are also suggestions concerning selection and use of realia in various elementary books to be had of our regular publishers.

The Modern Language Journal has a regular department on visual education conducted by E. G. Bernard, [10] in which films available

[1] "Released Realia," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1935), pp. 22–23.

[2] "A Course on French Customs as an Aid to the Study of French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Feb., 1927), pp. 320–327.

[3] Seventeen mimeographed sheets. Address Middlebury College, Middlebury, Vermont. Addresses but no prices given. For lists of French realia see also *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Feb., 1929), pp. 299–312.

[4] "Bringing France to American Pupils," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (April, 1927), pp. 423–426.

[5] *H.*, Vol. 10 (March, 1927), pp. 99–104.

[6] *H.*, Vol. 14 (Oct., 1937), pp. 289–292.

[7] *H.*, Vol. 5 (March, 1922), pp. 96–102. See also J. Moreno-Lacalle's "Realia in Teaching French," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Feb., 1929), pp. 299–312.

[8] *H.*, Vol. 6 (Oct., 1923), pp. 205–213.

[9] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Oct., 1936), pp. 17–22.

[10] See for instance *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1937), pp. 613–617 and (Nov., 1937), p. 132.

for class use are reviewed. W. Brickman has a valuable annotated list of films.[1] For suggestions of illustrations, films, and projector apparatus see an article by D. Paine,[2] "Pictures in the Spanish Class." O. Koischwitz has a monograph on the selection and application of illustrative material in foreign-language classes,[3] and J. E. Armstrong's *Notes on Visual Education for French Classes*[4] contains many useful suggestions along this line.

Important firms and book dealers listed in the appendix of this book will supply further lists of realia on request. The various teachers' service bureaus and the foreign-language departments of universities maintaining foreign-language houses[5] will offer suggestions to teachers on problems connected with obtaining such materials.

Problems for Study

1. Work out a minimum list of realia for a high school which you know well, giving specific identification of items, manufacturer, address of manufacturer and distributor, and price.
2. Make yourself able to draw extempore the map of the country in whose language you are most interested, putting in the chief political subdivisions, mountain ranges, rivers, and cities.
3. Make a map showing the location of the chief industries of the country in whose language you are most interested.
4. Draw a map showing the comparative density of population in the various sections of the country and attach an explanation of the reasons for this distribution.
5. If you are especially interested in either Spain, South America, or Italy, try to invent a method of drawing the map of the country as simple as that described in the two books on map drawing mentioned in this chapter.

[1] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pp. 132–140.
[2] *H.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1929), pp. 385–390.
[3] Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; 1932.
[4] *F.R.*, Vol. 6 (Feb., 1933), pp. 254–255.
[5] Lists of both are given on page 446 of the Appendix.

Chapter Eleven

Individual Differences and How to Provide for Them

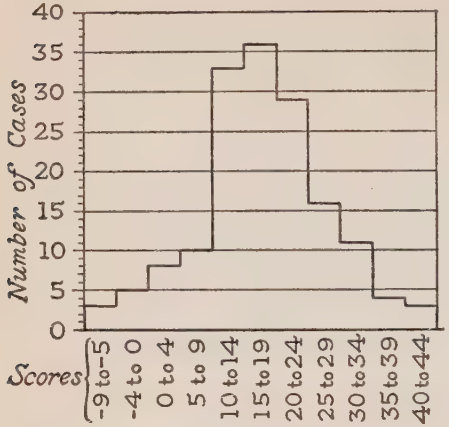
In any group of pupils there is bound to be a wide range of aptitudes and needs. Intelligence, emotional and temperamental make-up, taste, habits, and vocational needs will be widely varied in any classroom. An effective program of teaching must accordingly make a varied appeal and be directed at various objectives if it is to reach all the pupils for whom it is intended.

DETERMINING DIFFERENCES

It is scientifically established that if a sufficient number of humans are measured for any trait, half the measurements will fall into a middle zone. These represent the average, while at either end of the scale taper away the numbers having the trait in less or in greater prominence. The range between the two ends of such a scale representing the intelligence, or capacity for learning, of school pupils has had more professional attention than that of some of the other traits that bring complexity into the learning situation, and there have been developed reasonably satisfactory techniques for measuring it.

In his study of this range of learning ability in the typical classroom, Thorndike found that if the teacher "picks out half of the class and that most closely alike in any ability, she will yet find within that half a difference between the lowest and the highest such that the latter is from one and one fourth to one and three fourth times as competent as the former." He then illustrates this fact by scores, shown on page 268, representing the abilities of fourth-grade girls in thinking of the opposites of words.[1] The histogram chart shows the distribution of the scores.

[1] E. L. Thorndike, *Principles of Teaching, Based on Psychology*, pp. 73 ff. (H. G. Seiler, New York; 1906).



Score in a Test with Opposites	Number of Girls
− 9 to − 5	3
− 4 to 0	5
0 to 4	8
5 to 9	10
10 to 14	33
15 to 19	36
20 to 24	29
25 to 29	16
30 to 34	11
35 to 39	4
40 to 44	3

The mode is the score made by the greatest number. In this case it is found to lie in the 15-to-19 interval. The median is the middle one of all the scores made. This is seen to lie in the 15-to-19 interval. The median constitutes an average more readily found than the mathematical average.

In the table above it will be seen that 2 groups of girls (equaling 8 girls) made no score or a negative one, while the best group (3 girls) made a score more than twice the median.

Scores made on any test that truly represents pupil ability will reveal a condition similar to this in any typical classroom. The diagram clearly indicates this situation. The greatest number of pupils typically possess ability near the average and gradually decreasing numbers abilities varying from this in either direction.

It follows that instead of treating all students in unsegregated classes as if they had equal ability for the subject in hand, the teacher should spend considerable time in getting thoroughly acquainted with the students in order to find out their individual abilities and disabilities. If an aptitude test has been administered, he has its findings to start with. If not, the student's intelligence quotient and his marks previously made in elementary

or high school or college will guide the teacher's judgments of the pupil's capacity. Marks in English are indicative of linguistic ability and may be relied on in combination with the previous record of foreign-language study.

We must remember, however, that no matter what degree of ability a student has, we cannot help him to our fullest capacity nor lead him to exert his best efforts unless we know a good deal more about him than is revealed by academic records or intelligence quotients. We must know each pupil as a personality and know the various influences on, and elements of, this personality. We must know his extraction, circumstances, environment, health, habits, wishes, plans, and special problems. We must not forget that mental ability as measured by specific types of performance does not tell the whole story of human potentiality. To learn the significant truths about our students, we must delve beneath such surface indications to discover interests, determination, qualities of character. Given fair ability, the presence of other elements may finally be found to count for as much as superior ability without them. Without having such a well-rounded knowledge of his students, the teacher whether in elementary school or college can only administer mass education with its inevitable effects of regimentation, acquiescence, and dangerous conformity.

The hard-worked teacher with large classes may here demur that to learn each pupil in this way demands too much of his time and strength in addition to all his other school duties. However, teachers can soon learn how to get much of this information quickly from school records, conversation with parents or other teachers in faculty meetings or parent-teacher meetings, and from interested, thoughtful personal observation of the student himself.

During the first hours of the course — between drills on pronunciation — data about the students in the class and their individual needs may be assembled. Physical peculiarities and

needs should be discovered at this early period and provision immediately made for them. The hard-of-hearing or the near-sighted should be seated nearest to the teacher and the blackboard, and other such obvious adjustments to individual needs made. Closer study will of course be needed to discover the less readily observable differences among pupils. But this study of individual students will not seem any tremendous burden to the teacher to whom students are more interesting than books.

The foreign-language teacher will undertake to learn about each student all the facts that may have any importance for him. In addition to those already suggested, he will try to get all the facts bearing directly on the specific problems of language study. If the student has studied a foreign language, the teacher will want to know how long, where, and under whom he studied it. He will find out if he has had any experience with foreign languages outside school. If he has had, the teacher will find out what he can of the extent and circumstances of this experience.

To discuss his future vocation with the pupil is the business of the vocational counselor, if there is one in the school. If not, the subject-matter teacher may make it his business. If the counselor has, however, talked the matter out with the pupil, the modern-language teacher should know what the plan is. It is important to know for what purpose the student is taking the language course, and on whose advice or suggestion he may be taking it. Is it taken in preparation for some particular vocation or position? Is the course in preparation for high school or for college or for graduate work after college? Or is it to prepare for travel or reading or for some other special cultural or educational need?

In college, where courses advance to a greater degree of specialization than on the lower levels, we must inquire especially carefully into student needs for language study. If the language is for graduate or professional work, for what particular study will it be used? Is the student planning to teach the language, use

it in business, or is he learning it just for general culture or as an aid in developing a background for music or art? Is he interested in some special phase of the foreign civilization? What books, or portions of books, has he read in the foreign language, and what books did he study in his previous foreign-language courses? What books about the countries or people involved in the course has he read?

If, in addition to obtaining all this preliminary knowledge of his pupils, the teacher follows Morrison's injunction to "pretest, teach, test the result, adapt the procedure, teach, and test again to the point of actual learning," and if he keeps careful records that he can analyze, he will have a good estimate of the individual differences in his students and will be able to differentiate his treatment of them.

It is important to keep always in mind that every evidence of pupil failure or weakness is indication of a pupil need that has not been fully met. All such evidences must accordingly be carefully considered with a view to providing sound diagnosis and remedy.

When a student is falling behind, personal study of his case is needed. The student probably feels worse about his inability than the teacher, and so needs encouragement rather than reproof. Once this is effectively given, the soil is good for planting. Through thoughtful personal study of each individual problem, partly made in individual conference, the teacher must attempt to discover the source of the trouble. It may be any one of a group of a hundred different things: too little exercise and sleep, lack of time or of a place to study, laziness, poor habits of study and consequent discouragement, or some serious cause of home conditions, finances, or some individual social problem. With tact, wisdom, and depth of sympathy, knowledge of such causes will suggest the cure. Where the cause is, as it frequently will be, an incapacity for verbal learning, the need for carefully planned teaching methods is imperative.

PROVIDING FOR DIFFERENCES IN UNSEGREGATED CLASSES

The plan of segregating pupils in classes according to learning capacity, as discussed in Chapter Thirteen, is widely considered preferable to attempting to teach all pupils in a course in one group, but whatever conclusion is reached regarding its merits the facts remain that in the great majority of schools such segregation is impracticable and that even in a well-developed system of segregation there will still be a wide variety of ability and temperament and need within the class.

Once the teacher has identified his pupils as likely to be poor, average, or superior students the question of how to provide for their various needs in a mixed class is a serious one. Shall instruction be individualized in favor of any one of these classes? Quantitatively the average and poor students are more numerous than the good and superior, and they represent the most acute needs, so they must be given considerable attention. But teaching at the level of their ability must not involve sacrifice of opportunity for the better students. A proper program must be so balanced as to take care of all these varied needs.

There should be a special program for the weak students whether or not it is possible to segregate them in special classes. All their time should be put on translation. They should be excused from all oral work, and in the worst cases even from the written exercises. There should be a clear understanding with them that they will be passed if their daily translation is satisfactory. The writer has made such contracts with weak students repeatedly, although in some cases he has insisted on certain amounts of outside reading in addition. The minimum requirement of the passing of weak students might well be made the ability to handle the translation of each assignment. They may be allowed to translate at the blackboard while the rest are doing oral work at their seats. These translations can be corrected by the best students toward the end of the hour to provide immediate

correction of errors for the benefit of the pupils who made them and to conserve the teacher's time for work with the rest of the class. The teacher must of course make a later check of the corrections unless he finds in time that his correctors are very reliable.

Educationists tell us that the individual needs and capacities of pupils require that our teaching objectives and standards of achievement must be variable. There must, however, be certain ultimate aims toward which all our work leads and certain minimum standards of achievement that will be expected of all pupils. In the case of a modern-language course we believe that ability to read with complete understanding and a certain degree of fluency is the minimum accomplishment to be required of all pupils. Through a course devoted to the development of such ability we can provide a proper fare for all ability levels, a fare that will prove helpful to all. The minimum essentials to the development of such skill will be the basis of the course for all pupils, and must be clearly defined and redefined in well-considered detail. The weaker students will perhaps devote their whole time and effort to them. The better students may be led to enrich and embellish them in accordance with their various abilities.

Students without language aptitude find the speaking requirement sometimes imposed so unattainable that their whole approach to the study of a foreign language is hopeless and uninspiring, with the inevitable consequence that their whole emotional health suffers and the course proves fruitless. If reading ability, however, is the single requirement for the course, they will undertake its attainment hopefully and so achieve a good deal that may prove of considerable value to them. There is then ample opportunity to provide for the more capable students to develop whatever skills beyond the minimum essentials are attainable by and likely to be of value to them.

Minimum requirements for the course must of course be definitely established, and all students must be strictly held to

these. Under the general plan of any individual-progress method, there is more or less of a core requirement for all members of the class. This obviously must be so set up as to be by industry attainable by all, even by the poorest students admitted to the class.

The core requirement in the modern-language course is always the development of reading skills, the accomplishment of a certain quantity of reading, the learning of certain specified grammatical forms, and other clearly defined accomplishments which are worked at by the entire class until the better pupils have mastered them and the best ones, under the supervision of the teacher, are able to help the weak ones to achieve them to a satisfactory degree.

From this point on, pupils are allowed to follow the line of their special individual interests. The brighter pupils will, for example, be encouraged to read on their own and to read more than the rest of the class. A group of them may sit together in a corner of the room where they may carry on conversation about their reading, ask each other questions in the foreign language, or develop other group-study activities. They are encouraged to take books out of the school or class library and read at home. The teacher spends some time with this advanced group, hearing their recitations on the reading done, directing their reading, discussing controversial or stimulating points with them, and the like. The additional work that will then be required of these good students must be carefully determined. It will also be possible and very essential to set a minimum standard for every grade designation used in rating the pupils' work — A, B, C, or whatever other symbols of achievement are used. The writer sets varying amounts of outside reading as the basis for the various grades, and also requires that in tests the student working for an A or a B grade answer certain questions in the foreign language, whereas other students may answer in English.

Every student in the language class must be given the chance

to do advanced work as rapidly as his achievement makes possible. His progress must be continuous and his achievement must be clearly demonstrated to him and rewarded as an encouragement to further progress.

At Miami University, where fourteen hours of foreign language are required of the A.B. graduate, provision for such progress is made by permitting a student to attempt, at the end of either the first year or of the third or the fourth semester, the achievement test that is required for graduation; that is, after having done either eight or eleven or fourteen hours of work. Excellent students may pass this test at the end of the third semester and are then free to go on to a more advanced course in the same department or to begin another language, or to take a course on French, German, Spanish, or Italian literature given in English translations.

Extra credit is not given for extra reading, but a B-average student is given the privilege of doing three hours of absentia work during the summer if he applies for permission in advance and passes the test administered by a regular instructor. For such credit a university fee of two dollars per credit hour is charged.

In the University of Kansas no extra credit is given a student for exceeding the requirements of a course, but he is allowed to go to a higher class.[1] From the University of Wisconsin High School various rewards are reported for extra reading — high grades, extra credit, and contests offering distinction for the winners.[2] M. Friedman reports the success of rewarding achievement and providing for the continuous development of superior students by giving them opportunity to write for and edit a French school paper.[3]

[1] A. L. Corbin, "Special Promotion for Superior Students," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Nov., 1927), pp. 115–117.

[2] Laura Johnson, "The Use of Correlated Readings as a Means of Providing for Individual Differences," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Jan., 1929), pp. 270–279.

[3] "One Outlet for the Exceptional Language Student," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Jan., 1929), pp. 289–293.

The planning of the amounts of work of proper levels of difficulty for various grade designations will be progressively easier for the teacher from year to year if he will keep records of work accomplished by pupils on the various achievement levels. Such a system necessarily involves checking on individual work, but this proves a benefit and a pleasure where the result is added enthusiasm and accomplishment on the part of students, as it is bound to be if properly directed.

Professional literature contains descriptions of various plans for providing for individual differences in the language course based on a reading plan of study.

Miss N. C. Johnson [1] reports that she finds it effective to present the same material to all students in the mixed group but to differentiate the tests given good and poor students on this material.

Myrtle Sundeen [2] reports valuable practices for individualizing the instruction in unsegregated classes. In grammar study rules are developed inductively by the class as a whole; the best students are then asked to supply illustrations. Good students correct the work of poorer students. There are competitive exercises in grammar in which a list of items is assigned from which each student is to do as many as possible within the period. Students are expected to do amounts of reading in proportion to their ability, and the hardest questions on the reading are addressed to the best pupils. They also write questions on the text for others to answer.

R. W. Haller reports the employment of similar procedures in a class in which there were also minimum, medium, and maximum assignments made for all lessons. Students chose the ones they were able or willing to do, thus classifying themselves. The

[1] "Adjusting the Course in Spanish to High School Pupils," *H.*, Vol. 17 (Feb., 1934), pp. 37–42.

[2] "Individual Differences in the Modern Language Class," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Nov., 1928), pp. 112–117.

maximum assignment is discussed and gone over so that all may profit from it.[1]

Eugene Jackson[2] reported an experiment with 144 pupils in the De Witt Clinton High School of New York. Of these pupils 107 had been dropped from language courses for double failure and 11 of them had passed in no subject whatever. Of this total of 144, 97 passed in their foreign-language courses at the end of the year of the experiment and 47 failed. The essence of the plan was to stimulate interest and effort on the part of all pupils and to provide learning exercises on all levels of ability. Many interest-arousing methods with widely varied appeal were employed with these students, many of which have already been recommended in this book. Interest in the course was first aroused by a discussion of such topics as German literature and music, German science, the German language in the United States, the German Republic, English and German cognates, places where German is spoken. German songs were sung in class. The teacher put a great many common German words in rhymes for memorizing. Cardinal numbers and expressions of time were drilled on and true-false and incongruous statements were used to fix their retention. Humorous drawings made at the board to illustrate German tales were popular and stimulating. In later school work the pupils who had been badly retarded did about as well as other pupils in their classes after such teaching.

Harry Kurz[3] quotes ten well-known professors of French as to their provision for individual needs. Individual case study is made through conferences on personal study problems, promotional assignments, etc., three hours per instructor per week being

[1] "A Classroom Experiment in Modern Language Work: Instructional Procedure to Eliminate Segregation According to Ability," *H.P.*, Vol. 11 (Nov., 1929), pp. 34–35.

[2] "Adapting Teaching Methods to Pupil Material," *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (March, 1928), pp. 81–93.

[3] "Mark Hopkins on a French Log," *F.R.*, Vol. 4 (Nov., 1930), pp. 105–125.

reserved for such conference. This time is partly left open to all students and partly taken up by individual appointments. Each student's record is kept on a special card. The record of readings is kept on reading-report blanks.[1] One day a week is set apart in class for the discussion of individual reading reports, suggestions from the teacher, answering questions about further readings, etc. Additional books are laid out for inspection by the class. Open-shelf privileges, long-period withdrawals, a departmental reading room, encourage outside reading. Bulletin boards are used for weekly display of interesting material, travel posters, and pertinent information of various sorts. Attendance at appropriate opera and theater performances is encouraged. Special conferences are held with poor and failing students and special action is taken when it seems advisable to change such students to another instructor or to let them drop a subject or some outside work.

One teacher makes certain good students responsible for conducting the departmental language club.

Other devices employed to stimulate individual development are the use of placement tests, the enlistment of seniors to help beginners and to correct their notebooks, conferences of major students with the head of the department twice a year, limiting size of beginners' classes to twenty students, invitation of students to instructor's home for social gatherings, a departmental honor society to stimulate good students, and provision of opportunity for future teachers to do actual teaching under direct supervision of the regular instructor. At Miami University the freshman faculty advisers also hold regular conferences with their advisees, consult their instructors when necessary, lighten or increase student loads when necessary, and sit in the faculty Committee of Freshmen Advisers to pass on borderline cases.

There has also been developed a general plan of lesson organiza-

[1] Such a record card long in use at Miami University calls for name of author and book, very short synopsis of contents, comment on value the book has for the student.

tion especially designed to provide for individual progress along individual lines. This is known as the Dalton, the project, or the contract plan, as well as by various other names. Individual self-activity is stimulated in these plans by individual "projects," or "contracts," planned by the teacher — the making of scrapbooks, editing a school paper, making a study of some phase of the foreign civilization, or the like. The teacher agrees with the pupil on a certain amount of work, or a definite job, which the pupil is to do by himself as his required work for the course or for a portion of it. For this individualized work ample interesting material, such as pictures, posters, books, charts, realia of all sorts, which pupils may handle at will, is even more essential than in the class working as a group under direct teacher leadership.

A project may be to draw a map of the foreign country and to put in it anything the individual has learned about the country — about the population, cities, political divisions, occupations, or other features discussed in Chapter Ten. These data may have been gleaned from radio programs, newspapers, or any of various sources. Other projects may be to arrange programs or exhibits for the class in which customs, songs, art, or other evidence of the characteristics of the civilization will be portrayed. Pupil projects may also deal with more purely linguistic matters. Pupils may make collections of English-foreign cognates or of related groups of words. Or the teacher may write numbers of related words on the board in miscellaneous order and make the assembling of them in related groups an individual or group project or contract. A larger project may be for a group to assemble all the related words of a text in groups, or to collect all the words of a text which have cognates in English.

The making of scrapbooks on the foreign civilization is a project that provides interest on various ability levels.[1] Laura

[1] See P. Kittel, "Pictures and Scrapbooks as Aids in Teaching," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 28 (March, 1936), pp. 122–123.

Crandon [1] has described her use in the Horace Mann School of Columbia University of scrapbooks in which one pupil supplied original illustrations, another original descriptions of them in German. A record of current events was also made in book form and illustrated with original maps.

Alma Greenwald [2] used lantern slides showing events, scenes, places. Each student had chosen one of these slides for special study in advance, read up on it, and then presented a report to the class as the pictures were shown.

P. A. Werner [3] developed the following projects to provide for individual development among the pupils in his German courses: stamp collections, song collections, cooking recipes, menus, pictures, difficult words commonly used, flower books, where German is used in our city, German as compared with other languages, letters, geography, manners and customs, artists and musicians.

Mary E. Peters [4] set as the aim of a project developed by her the attainment of "general information to supplement courses in history, geography, and literature and to awaken in the student through a knowledge of another nation that understanding and appreciation which will make him a better citizen of the nation and of the world."

[1] "Daltonizing First-Year German Classes," *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (Nov., 1928), pp. 155–159. See also Helen Parkhurst, *Education on the Dalton Plan* (E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., New York; 1922); H. R. Heskamp, "Publishing a Departmental Bulletin," *H.*, Vol. 13 (Feb., 1930), pp. 55–59; Stella Hinz, "German Games for Club and Classroom," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1930), pp. 26–28; M. E. Holtz, "Project: Rediscovering Germany," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (Oct., 1928), pp. 177–183.

[2] "An Application of the Project Method to Visual Work in German," *H.P.*, Vol. 11 (March, 1929), pp. 45–47.

[3] "Projects in German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (April, 1927), pp. 434–435.

[4] "A Project in Teaching Modern Languages," *H.*, Vol. 17 (Dec., 1934), pp. 367–369. See also Amelia Beaudout, "The Dalton Plan as Applied to Modern Languages," *Twelfth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings*, pp. 236–238 (University of Pennsylvania; 1925); and E. C. Stent, "The Dalton Laboratory Method as Applied to the Teaching of French," *Modern Languages*, Vol. 4 (Oct., 1921), pp. 21–22.

Another method of lesson organization designed to provide for individual development is the unit plan. This is a scheme for organizing subject matter into logical units, each to be mastered before the pupil goes on to the next.[1] The material of the units must be restricted to that essential to the purpose of the course.

It is vitally important that units must not be too large and that stress must be laid on mastery of each unit before it is left and a new one taken up. There is need to raise the idea of mastery to a conscious ideal in the minds of the students. The idea underlying the unit plan is that complete mastery, and not 50 per cent or 75 per cent achievement, in the work of a unit is to be attained.

Edith Pattee [2] divides the week's assignment into five units, and while the whole class meets five times a week, none but those who have finished a unit recite on it. The others study meantime. Those who do more than the five units laid out for the course are given extra credit. Pupils are invited to bring their difficulties to the teacher for help. W. V. Kaulfers [3] illustrates the plan with units of Spanish verbs. For instance, he gives the phrase *cambiar un cheque*, which is learned in the indicative; then in the interrogative and negative form; then in connection with possessive and demonstrative adjectives. The expression *tener que* is now added, the whole forming a "unit."

How unit study may serve mastery in the ninth grade is shown by H. L. Miller and Dorothy Johnson.[4] They outline a unit to be covered in four to five weeks by fair students, an extended

[1] See H. C. Morrison, *Practice and Teaching in the Secondary School* (University of Chicago Press; 1926); R. and E. Eakin, "Your Castle in Spain: A Guide to the Study of Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 15 (Nov.–Dec., 1932), pp. 507–514; H. L. Miller, *Directing Study*, Chapter 2, and H. L. Miller and R. T. Hargreave, *The Self-Directed School*, Chapter 2 (both published by Charles Scribner's Sons, New York).

[2] "The Contract Plan in Foreign Languages," *High School*, Vol. 6 (Feb., 1929), pp. 82–85.

[3] "The Mastery Unit Plan in Foreign Language Teaching," *H.*, Vol. 13 (Nov., 1930), pp. 417–430.

[4] "Directing Study for Mastery," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 30 (Dec., 1922), pp. 777–86.

unit for good students, and a still more extended one for excellent students. The requirements for rating of "fair" are the absolute attainment of definite standards of performance on the following tasks: (1) memorizing a certain poem; (2) writing compositions, including a hundred-word synopsis of a play or of any story read, and giving an oral composition comprising answers to any questions based on sixteen stories assigned for reading; (3) translating from English to French any one of seventeen stories read; (4) reading five lines of prepared material and five lines of new material at sight. To get a rating of "good," excellent work must be done in the following: (1) memorizing three assigned poems; (2) writing a composition of one hundred fifty words based on a story read outside of class; giving an oral composition consisting of answers to questions on any story in *Petits Contes;* (3) translating from English to French any story in the Longmans text used in class; from French into English any unfamiliar passage at sight; (4) reading ten lines of prepared material and five lines of unfamiliar material at sight. The requirement for a grade of "excellent" is a very high grade of performance on the following tasks: (1) memorizing four assigned poems or presenting a prepared play before the class; (2) writing a composition of one hundred fifty to two hundred words on the geography of France or its history, its landscape, lives of its great men, or some similar topic; (3) translating at sight five lines from English into French and twenty lines from French into English; (4) reading fifteen lines of prepared material and ten lines of new material at sight.

A student may undertake one of the extended units for a higher rating only after the requirement on the next lower unit has been met. Outside reading must be approved before it is offered for credit.

Various types of tests of student achievement are devised. Sometimes a number of questions are given the pupils to be prepared, one of them then to be drawn by lot and answered readily by the pupil. A "prepared" reading may comprise the

student's correct and fluent reading of any lines he has chosen to prepare.

PROVIDING INCENTIVE FOR EVERY PUPIL TO WORK

A first essential to effective learning is motivation that compels interest and challenges effort. Because of the variety of pupil background and temperament, there is a need for a wide variety of appeals to arouse this pupil interest and ambition. In some of the most important studies of pupil failures [1] teachers attribute these up to 83 per cent to "indifference" of the student, and the students themselves think 68 per cent of their failures are due to this cause. The term "indifference," however, offers little clue to the real trouble, for indifference is a symptom, not a cause. Usually it is only evidence that the teaching has failed to provide for the wide variety of interests and needs and difficulties in the class and so has failed to elicit interest.

Providing motivation — that is, making the student want to learn — is one of the hardest tasks in teaching; no other factor is so important. One of the most powerful aids to motivation, however, is enjoyment, and it is possible to make language study really enjoyable to pupils of all ages. If the study is made pleasurable, there is no need for further motivation, especially with adolescents. They will carry it on just as they do a game of baseball, tennis, dancing, or any other sport. The use of interesting and well-illustrated material — and there is much of this available for the language class — will enlist much interest and stimulate enjoyable activity.

There must, however, be a variety of approaches for the class as

[1] Carmon Ross, editor, *Failures in High School* (Doylestown, Pennsylvania; 1927); H. R. Atkin, "When Is a Failure Not a Failure?" *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 33 (May, 1925), pp. 363–364; M. M. Gilbert, "Some Thoughts on Failing Students," *High School Journal*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1929), pp. 221–228; W. A. Yeager, " Analysis of the Causes of Failure in a Typical High School," *Thirteenth Annual Schoolmen's Week Proceedings* (University of Pennsylvania; 1926), pp. 131–146.

a whole and for different individuals in the class if such an interest is to be kept alive and active. As an aid in planning these, the teacher must know what course each student is taking, his special interests, his background, and his future plans.

The importance of helping pupils to discover reading materials along the lines of their special interests and of creating the opportunity to use these as lesson material has been discussed in Chapter Nine. For the class as a whole the general cultural interest in its widest sense is perhaps the most challenging approach to language study. Interest in cultural interrelations offers a wide variety of approach. Articles of commerce, of art, of clothing, that are common in our markets and in our homes may furnish an interesting take-off for language study. Their foreign names, information about where they are grown or manufactured, their use in the country of their origin, and other facts about them will make a wide appeal to pupil interest. There are also ideas of the foreign culture imbedded in aspects of our own civilization, about which the pupil already has a knowledge and an interest: Spanish influences in the Southwest and in Florida; the Creole element in Louisiana; the French element in our architecture, painting, governmental institutions, and in our language; the German influence in the development of farming and settlement in Pennsylvania; the "German Belt" in the great Midwest region; the German habits of work as they find expression in this country and the ease with which Germans are assimilated into our society; the Italian love of home, of beauty, of music, as it finds expression in American communities.

Every student has a natural eagerness to learn about other lands. Their history may be made full of interest for him, as may the story of the actual human lives being lived in them today.

If the interest and the ambition of all the pupils are to be retained throughout the course, individual reactions and progress must be closely followed. Where the subject matter

fails to awaken a ready response, the teacher may know she has lost contact with the pupils' interests and needs and must renew her acquaintance with them.

Success is an essential to interest. If effort is to be continually challenged, consciousness of success must be brought to each pupil at frequent and regular periods. That the student may achieve success, it is vital that every task to be performed be clearly understood by him and that he have the skills and knowledge with which to perform it. Every assignment must accordingly be explained and illustrated so that each pupil understands it perfectly. There must then be provided a means of measuring performance so that he may have demonstrable evidence of his achievement and growth. Continual competition with the rest of the class on the basis of positive standards of achievement will not provide this evidence for the slow pupil. He must rather be provided with a gauge for comparing each day's performance with his own past record.

J. C. Chapman and R. B. Feder [1] report an experiment demonstrating how the following incentives produced excellent results with pupils in grade 5A in the Cleveland Demonstration School: publication of the results of the previous day, marking in heavy blue pencil on sheets presented for the day's work the point reached by the pupil on the previous day, exhibiting a graph showing the general improvement of the class, credit in the form of stars to the upper 50 per cent in the previous day's performance, prizes of nominal value to the upper 50 per cent in the class on the basis of gross improvement made in the ten practice periods.

Without such stimuli that will function for all pupils in the class, general appeals to pride in progress or to competitive effort will be effective only with the best pupils in the class, and those are the ones who least need such stimulus.

"Indifference," "lack of concentration," all such explanations

[1] "The Effect of Incentives on Improvement," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 8 (Sept., 1917), pp. 469–474.

commonly given for pupil failure, evidence the failure of the teacher to provide for individual needs rather than an essential incapacity on the part of pupils to learn.

DEVELOPING SOUND STUDY HABITS

An essential part of any program of teaching designed to provide for individual differences in pupil ability must be the development of sound study habits and the correction of faults in habits already established. To achieve this end there must be systematic instruction in study methods for the class as a whole and for individuals as it is needed.

Pupil progress very obviously depends on the development of habits of self-directed study, and the training of these calls for more teacher guidance than can be given in the regular class recitation period. It is accordingly becoming increasingly common to find special provision in the school for a planned program of instruction in study methods and for guidance and supervision of developing habits of study. Where such a program is established, the modern-language teacher will find in it an opportunity for solving many of the individual learning problems of his pupils. Where supervised study is not a regularly established part of the school work, the language teacher must see that in class time he gives so much help in directing study as seems likely to give reasonable guidance to the weakest students with a minimum of waste of time for the best. Additional help may be given in individual conference periods as it is needed.

The importance of proper study habits and the frequent inadequacies of pupils in this respect point to the need for thoughtful attention to pupil needs for assistance and guidance in study methods at every step of the way. It will not do to give even the most careful definition of the tasks assigned as homework and then expect the class to carry them out. The bright students may be able to do this, but the less eager or able students need considerably more help than this. They need well-considered

and clearly presented explanations of the most effective methods of accomplishing the assigned tasks. And it is not sufficient that these explanations be given just once to the class. The best pupils, who already are pretty much practicing these methods and recognize their value, may be given clearer understanding of and respect for them in this single presentation. But for the rest of the class frequent reiteration is necessary. Bright students usually show an alert appreciation of study techniques and will develop them for themselves if the teacher does not provide them. For the benefit of the poor students study techniques should be carefully explained and illustrated.

In any kind of work, general or detailed — silent reading, learning associated pairs, vocabulary-building exercises, labeling constructions, or whatever — there are certain study processes that will prove most effective. These the teacher must have analyzed with great care. He must read and think about the steps involved, for learning sometimes becomes possible only if the task is broken up into steps.

For example, the advice to "get the meaning" of a reading assignment is entirely meaningless to an incapable student. He has probably not even learned to use the vocabulary and notes in his book and must be shown how to use them and then be habituated to their use. Perhaps then he may be able to get the barest sense of a passage by looking up every word in the vocabulary. Soon we show him that certain articles, prepositions, etc., recur again and again and that if he fixes these in his mind and looks up only the verbs, nouns, and pronouns he can get the sense of what he reads. We show him how important it is to note and to remember frequently used words. We get him to memorize some of these in lists of associated pairs, and test him on them. Next, we show him how to guess words. Although this method has been illustrated over and over again in class, he has never grasped it. We now go through a bit of text with him, helping him to guess. We may take three or four others like him after class and do such

guessing with the group, introducing the element of competition under encouraging conditions.

In much the same way every learning process in the language course will have to be broken up into simple steps for some pupils in the class.

Herewith is presented a summary outline of study techniques that might well be given every student of a foreign language. Techniques that apply to certain special phases of language study are omitted here, as they are more fully discussed in the chapters of this book dealing with the special fields of learning. Summaries similar to these given here may be made from these fuller discussions. Such suggestions for proper study as these must be conveyed to each individual pupil in the way and with the emphasis that promises to be most effective in providing for his special needs.

1. *How to acquire a good pronunciation.* The very first meetings of your class are by far the most important times for you to learn how to pronounce a foreign language. You should not pronounce by yourself at first, but only under the supervision of the teacher. Do not pronounce a sound even in class before the teacher has explained how it is formed and has pronounced it repeatedly. Sit as close to the teacher as possible. Pay the closest possible attention. Try to pronounce individually at first as much as possible, not with the group. If it is not possible to do this aloud, keep on pronouncing the sound or word subvocally to yourself. The teacher will use group pronunciation to get more practice for the class and to encourage the timid ones, but individual pronunciation is better. Do not look at a regular printed text before your pronunciation is good. It is five to six times easier to establish the good pronunciation of a sound or word correctly than to break the habit of incorrect pronunciation. Always take pains to enunciate clearly. The first texts you will be allowed to see will be pronounced carefully for you by the teacher. Take pains with the pronunciation of these at home. Careful first efforts with pronunciation pay great dividends. In a few days your pronunciation will be fixed for good or bad.

2. *Learn to work effectively.* Keep in good physical condition. Work in a regularly established place, and if possible at an accustomed time. Are you sitting correctly? Are the conditions of light, air, temperature,

correct? Start work immediately on schedule and begin vigorously. Work until you are tired. Push yourself beyond this first fatigue to your "second wind." Ineffective students, like poor athletes, stop short of "second wind." Are you independent now in handling your learning? If so, then forget time and space and work as hard and as thoroughly as your powers permit. When you have finished your assignment, ask yourself: Have I got it? What will be asked of me in class — (*a*) to put my work on the board? (*b*) to give the rule? (*c*) to give original illustrations of the rule in sentences? Be sure your preparation on each of these points is ample and correct so that you can instruct another student in them, if necessary.

3. *Memorizing for oral reproduction.* Be sure you (*a*) understand the meaning of the material; (*b*) memorize by speaking it aloud; (*c*) memorize by wholes but (*d*) divide the drills up into short periods, and (*e*) do other work between the periods of drill; (*f*) don't overlearn a passage; (*g*) practice recalling it at once without looking at the text; (*h*) review the material shortly before going to class; (*i*) always memorize material in the form in which you will want to reproduce it later.

4. *Filling-in, completion, matching, true-false, and multiple-choice exercises.* Oral reproduction if you are by yourself, or subvocal reproduction if you are in a room with other persons, is very helpful as you write the answers to objective test exercises. If such exercises are done at home, they should be done at one sitting, reviewed immediately thereafter, and then reviewed again orally before going to class.

5. *Preparing a reading lesson.* If your text is properly graded to your present reading ability, you should read the assignment through without looking up any words. In this way you will learn to enjoy reading. You often read English books in which you meet certain words new to you, and you do not stop to look them up in a dictionary, but read on, getting the meaning from context and enjoying the story. The same thing can and should be done in reading a foreign language. After finishing this first reading, start again, go more slowly, and now try to make out the meaning of all the words. Read aloud on this second reading, and when you get tired of reading aloud, pronounce subvocally, moving your lips as for full articulation.

6. *How to guess new words.* You have learned in class that there is a high percentage of French words in the English language; that German and English were once one language; and that Spanish and Italian, as daughter languages of the Latin, contain in common with English a great many derivatives from the Latin. These words still, although

the variant spelling of these cognate words veils this relationship somewhat, correspond largely in meaning. If your teacher gives you a list of the common correspondences and differences in spelling between English and the language you are studying,[1] you will be better able to recognize these words. You will thus learn to recognize French *brun*, *longue*, *infériorité*, as cognate with the English brown, long, inferiority; German *Hand*, *Tochter*, *Bruder*, as hand, daughter, brother; Spanish *mapa*, *tres*, *objeto*, as map, three, object.

You can also learn to recognize the numerous words formed from a single root word. Thus in English we find all the related words: to work, the work, worker, workable, to work out, work in, work through, work up, working man, working woman, work-bench, unworkable, unworkably, etc. In French there are likely to be as many words from a single root as, *cours*, *course*, *concourse*, *secours*, *recours*, *courant*, *couramment*, *courir*. In German a closely related group is *Hand*, *Handlung*, *handlich*, *behandeln*, *abhandeln*, etc. You will therefore make greater progress if you learn to recognize new members of such a group by their similarity to one member that you know. The farther you go in your studies the more valuable will this habit of identifying words by their roots prove itself.

A third important way of guessing words is to infer their meaning from the sentence or phrase in which they are found. If you know the easy words and can guess some others as cognates or deriving from known roots, it will not be difficult generally to infer the meaning of the last word or last few remaining words of a sentence. Let us assume that we know all the words except *hache* in the sentence *Il a une hache dans la main et veut couper du bois pour faire de feu.* Since we know that the subject of the sentence wishes to cut wood for making a fire, and since it is likely that the thing he has in his hand has some relation to this fact, and since *hache* resembles the English *ax* in sound, it seems reasonable to guess that is what the word means. Sometimes reading to the end of the paragraph, or even farther, yields the meaning, when it is not clear from the sentence. If it does not, you will then have to look up the meaning.

7. *Using the glossary.* Do not turn to the vocabulary except as a last resort. If you own your own book, you may make this process easier by cutting and lettering an index on edges of your vocabulary pages. After you have had to look up a word you might also write the meaning of it at the bottom of the text page where it occurs so that you will have

[1] See Chapter Seven.

extra help fixing it in your memory. If you write these English meanings between the lines of text, or if you do not cover them up when you review your reading, you will not be helping yourself to learn the new word. This mistake will prevent the growth of your vocabulary.

Have you indexed your vocabulary? Are you looking into the vocabulary more than is necessary? If so, throw this crutch away and guess words from context and from similarity to English words.

8. *How to study grammar.* The teacher has previously developed the forms and principle to be mastered in this lesson and you have taken notes on the procedure outlined. Read these over thoughtfully now. Do you still understand what is to be done? If not, ask the teacher. As you work, are you making satisfactory progress? If not, why not? Is it because you do not know the necessary forms? If so, memorize these first. Do you understand the governing principle — perhaps, by way of example, the rule on agreement of adjective with its antecedent in French, or the case in which the relative is used in the German relative clause? If not, turn to the rule. If you understand it, memorize it at once. Have you marked the printed index of your grammar so you can find any form or rule readily?

8. *How to study material on the foreign civilization.* Study what you have learned about the foreign civilization as you would history or science material. If it is in a textbook that is your own personal property, mark the main thought in each paragraph. Make a summary of the material with a heading to cover the whole subject and one for each subdivision, and then list the individual items under each of these. Writing out an outline that requires you to think over and organize the material is effective, but mere copying of statements is only a waste of time.

9. *Memorizing.* Memorize material in the form in which you expect to reproduce it. Distribute your periods of drill if the task is considerable. Always embody principles and rules in concrete examples. Use up to half your time practicing recall of material rather than just reading it over and over. Foreign words are best learned by the means suggested or in associated pairs; that is, a foreign word and an English word. Printed lists of such pairs should be used for this purpose. Do not depend on rest periods for fixing words or other material in memory. It is better to finish learning, review it, and then drop it for something else. Well-learned material remains in memory about a week. Then it is time for a review.

Learn by "wholes"; that is, when memorizing a song, or paradigm, or other material, learn the whole at once, not piecemeal bits. Most

grammars have the complete paradigms and conjugations in the back of the book although these outlines are also found scattered piecemeal through the book.

Decide how you learn best — by seeing or speaking, or by writing and speaking simultaneously. Then use the method best suited for you. The method most effective for acquiring language for fourfold use is a combination of all four processes: seeing, hearing, speaking, and writing.

A strong determination to remember helps greatly.

10. *How to study literature.* Read the assignment over entirely, getting all of the meaning you can. If the language contains difficulties, mark these and clear them up later on. The second time you read the selection, try to get fine shades of meaning and the beauty of form and imagery.

Read a sketch of the author's life and work, and try to think out his deepest intention and thought in the selection you have read.

Gifted students repay well any individual attention given them. The first need of the teacher in such a program is an appreciation of what superior ability is and an understanding of how to guide it. He need not feel that he should know more than all his gifted students, although in the elementary courses he naturally would. In advanced courses he may well urge his best students to develop their special interests along lines with which he may be unfamiliar. It is of the greatest importance, however, that the teacher have a well-defined philosophy toward and a knowledge of the scientific principles that have been developed for teaching gifted pupils. This subject has received a good deal of attention in the United States, and a considerable number of helpful writings have appeared on it.[1] With these the teacher should be

[1] L. M. Terman and others, *Mental and Physical Traits of One Thousand Gifted Children*, Vol. 1 of *Genetic Studies of Genius* (Stanford University Press; 1926), is the most elaborate study of gifted children. C. M. Cox, *The Early Mental Traits of Three Hundred Geniuses*, Vol. 2 of *Genetic Studies of Genius*. L. M. Stedman, *Education of Gifted Children* (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1928). L. S. Hollingworth, *Gifted Children: Their Nature and Nurture* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1926). H. H. Goddard, *School Training of Gifted Children* (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1928). For valuable articles and an extended bibliography see the *Twenty-third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of*

acquainted. He needs also an appreciation of the fact that the few superior students in any class will probably contribute more to human progress than the entire rest of the class.

PROVIDING FOR DIFFERING NEEDS FOR FOREIGN LANGUAGE

The various uses that language skills and knowledge may serve have already been discussed in considering the objectives of foreign-language teaching. Both these and the closely allied, and so also widely differing, interests that students will bring to language study decree the need for individualized language instruction.

The language course as it is commonly developed serves general cultural ends more than any special vocational or scholarly needs. Those who would gain knowledge of a foreign language for use in commercial or industrial positions or for scientific research may well ask that the modern-language course give them more help than it commonly has given in the past.

The Society of Federal Translators is now carrying on a campaign to urge at least a few colleges and universities to institute a four-year course for translators in recognition of the important need for professional training in this field. It seems unlikely, however, that such training will ever be highly specialized, certainly not until the needs are much more narrowly defined than they are now and the opportunities for persons with this specialized training more obviously abundant than they are at present. While opportunities in the field are limited, the student is probably best prepared to find a place in the business or professional world if his training is adaptable to more than one use.

Education, Part I (1924), also the *Twenty-fourth Yearbook*, Part II (1925) (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois). For studies of genius see: J. M. Cattell, "A Statistical Study of Eminent Men," *Popular Science Monthly*, Vol. 52 (Feb., 1903), pp. 359–377; William James, "Great Men, Great Thoughts, and the Environment," *Atlantic Monthly*, Vol. 56 (Oct., 1880), pp. 441–459; F. A. Wood, *Mental and Moral Heredity in Royalty* (Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York; 1906).

Study of the demands now made on even the professional translator indicates that such a varied and well-rounded training as that now typical of the foreign-language course is more likely to serve his needs than would any more narrowly specialized program of the study. Federal translators mention the following fields in which they are frequently asked to translate: government, economics, commercial law, botany, biology, chemistry, physics, mechanics, electricity, public health, agriculture, national defense, and international relations. The advantage of a broadly informative and cultural training is evident. Instead of taking a highly specialized course, the prospective translator should therefore perhaps elect broadly from sociology, government, political science, and economics, with a good smattering of the natural sciences. It seems highly important also that the translator-in-training have, besides his language training, a good grounding in social and natural science as well as in English and the methods of bibliography and lexicography. Although commercial language schools have attempted to give special and complete training for the profession of translating, it seems obvious that they can never give the broadly liberal background of education that the profession requires.

The growing importance of the profession requires that colleges study the demands it is making of their students and so be prepared to advise those wanting preparation for it. It is probable that certain emphases in their course of study may well be encouraged.

Of course, future translators must carry modern-language courses for four years in college, in addition to any taken in high school, and not only one foreign language, since a professional translator must be able to translate from at least two languages. Since he may need to be able to interpret also, he should be trained to understand the spoken language and to speak it. The prospective translators in any section or class should be singled out by the instructor and given much translation to do,

and from various fields, not only from literary works. Not approximate, but exact, translation should be required, especially of scientific treatises. Occasionally some fine literary translation should be attempted. If a course in scientific German or French is given, the prospective translator should be required to take it.

Since a knowledge of the foreign civilization is necessary for him, he should also be required to take a course in the civilization and institutions of the foreign country, and in his last year he should be given a course in the specific problems of the professional translator, including bibliography. Almost any of the larger, well-equipped departments can follow this program practically without setting up any new courses, and it seems in the line of progress to do this much at least.

Maria de Villavilla [1] reports the beginning of specialization of instruction for commercial and academic pupils on the high-school level, although the special needs of these two groups are provided for in one room and one period.

The special needs of students for foreign language in scientific study have had more general recognition from modern-language departments than have any other specialized vocational or scholarly needs. A course in reading especially designed for those with technical or scientific interests is rather common in colleges and universities. Many persons believe that if the student has a good general vocabulary and adequate language training, he encounters no special problems in reading technical writings, and by narrowing his own special field of study he loses a valuable opportunity for cultural enrichment, as well as offering an unnecessary teaching problem. It seems fairly certain, however, that extra emphasis is necessary to give the science scholar or engineer the skill he needs to read scientific French or German accurately. The need is greater in the case of German than of

[1] "Group Instruction in Spanish," *H.P.*, Vol. 12 (March, 1930), pp. 9–14.

French, however, because scientific German is considerably harder than scientific French to read with only two years of training in the language, and the volume and importance of German scientific writings is greater than of those in French. There are moreover two generally conceded effects of scientific reading courses that win a good many adherents for them. The actual development of scientific knowledge that accrues is of direct practical value to the science student. The student's natural strong interest in the subject matter of the scientific reading course provides powerful motivation for his language study.

C. H. Brannan [1] believes that learning to read scientific German and French will contribute considerably to scientific progress as well as to improved international understanding.

There is evidence to the fact that interest in courses in scientific German is increasing, while that in such courses for French remains fairly static.

E. B. Williams [2] inquired by questionnaire of 207 colleges about special scientific courses being offered in modern languages. His findings are summarized herewith:

There were 27 such courses in French, 93 in German, and 8 in Spanish. The course was commonly of two semesters, three hours a week, with a two-year prerequisite in the language concerned. In three fourths of the cases the enrollment in the course was chiefly science students although others were not barred. The course was not generally required of science students, but in the case of students of chemistry and medicine the course in German was rather commonly required.

The reading texts in French and Spanish were partly literary and partly technical; in the case of German, technical material was used almost exclusively.

[1] "Contributions to Citizenship by Modern Language Courses in Scientific Literature," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Feb., 1936), pp. 259–264.

[2] "The Teaching of Scientific French, German, and Spanish in American Colleges," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (March, 1929), pp. 471–477.

Answers to questionnaires indicated that training in oral translation into English and vocabulary drill were generally considered essential in the course. Practice in oral use of the language, written translation into the foreign language, and composition were generally considered unessential.

The following aims were embraced most frequently for French: skill in reading and translation, broad cultural knowledge and knowledge of scientific progress in France; for German the same, and in addition, international understanding and ability to understand scientific lectures in German; for Spanish, reading, vocabulary, composition, and conversation skills and some actual travel experience in Spanish countries.

The method of teaching these courses differs from that of the other language courses. In French there is more reading and translating done but no grammar, conversation, or written composition; in German there is special emphasis on translating and technical vocabulary, no literary appreciation, and little grammar and composition; in Spanish there is much reading but little grammar or phonetics.

German enrolls nearly twice as many students in technical courses as French and Spanish together, and German technical courses are offered in two and a half times as many colleges as is French.

The instructors were trained in language, not in science. It is hard to find instructors competent in both fields, as science men have not usually proper linguistic ability. Coöperation between the language specialist who teaches a course and the students who know the science is found to be a way out.

C. D. Vail reports [1] that 117 of 151 colleges questioned by him were offering a course in scientific German, the plan involving a two-year prerequisite and a course of three hours for two semesters each. Intensive reading of from 50 to 1000 pages was the usual

[1] "The Scientific German Course," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 28 (Oct., 1936), pp. 250–254.

program of work for the year, the mode being 200 pages. In seventy-eight of the institutions no outside reading was done; in the rest 100 to 1000 pages were read. Translating was the prevalent learning method employed, with slight amounts of oral reading. In a few institutions there was no language prerequisite for the course; scientific reading started from scratch. In about half the classes, abstracts of extensive reading were demanded. The texts used are mostly school editions. Scientific periodicals are frequently used as outside reading. Chemistry and premedical texts are the most popular, with biology and physics second. Students prefer texts in the line of their specialties.

W. F. Kamman [1] of the Carnegie Institute of Technology made a study of 238 college catalogues and received 67 replies to a questionnaire on the teaching of scientific French and German. His findings are in brief: Of the 238 catalogues, 30 list a course in scientific French; the mode is a two-semester course, two or three hours a week; the prerequisite is one to two years of French; the reading content is from scientific, technical, and biological texts. Of the 238 catalogues, 107 list courses in scientific German; a two-semester course, three hours a week, is the mode; the prerequisite is one and a half to three years of German. A summary of the 67 replies to questionnaires follows: 18 report a scientific French course, the mode being a two-semester, three-hour-a-week course; 55 report a scientific German course, the mode being a two-semester, three-hour-a-week course. The content of the courses surveyed comprises reading on fifteen different sciences, part of it from magazines. The teaching method generally emphasizes translation into English. This is literal at first, sometimes later done by paraphrase. In the majority of courses grammar is not studied but word study is.

M. C. Stewart has prepared stimulating and directly helpful

[1] "The Teaching of Scientific French and German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 427–430.

outlines and a bibliography for a four-year course in scientific German.[1]

W. French [2] has worked out a plan for specialized individual or group assignments in his course at the University of Maine, the departments of German and chemistry coöperating. The course starts with drill on involved constructions, the passive voice and its substitutes, vocabulary, and much sight reading in addition to the regular reading program. When the student is ready to go ahead with individual readings, the professor of chemistry gives him a list of references to current scientific literature. The language teacher then guides him in following this list. The first assignment is little if any more difficult than what has been read so far in class, but the student will so be encouraged to read at his best speed and special compensation is given him for extra work done. The student's report is a paraphrase of his readings, not full literal translations. This report is finally referred by the language instructor to the instructor in chemistry for check on subject matter. This plan has certain obvious advantages besides those inherent in any plan of specialized reading. The student's language work will apply directly and immediately to his chemistry study; and the coöperation developed between the language and the science department is stimulating and wholesome for both of them.

Ruth Tiley,[3] a technical language worker herself, sees a considerable field of opportunity in such work for properly trained linguists. She accordingly recommends a course in French that concentrates on technical material. In a second article [4] she

[1] "A New German Course for Science Students," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Dec., 1935), pp. 163–164.

[2] "A Plan to Increase the Value of Scientific German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Dec., 1928), pp. 208–211.

[3] "French as a General Technical Course," *F.R.*, Vol. 3 (Feb., 1930), pp. 243–246.

[4] "Suggestions for a New-Type Language Course," *F.R.*, Vol. 5 (Jan., 1932), pp. 196–201.

advises in part a technique of individual readings much like that developed by Mr. French.

This scheme of individualized reading, we may add, can be undertaken in any situation, with or without the coöperation of the science department, however valuable such coöperation undoubtedly is. The first text should be an easy one and should contain material from various branches of science. In this way each student will find something in the line of his special interest. The teacher should often at the start translate passages himself orally for the class, just to help the weaker students and to set a pace. Assignments should be as large as the class can carry, but each one should be completely covered in the recitation period. If the entire assignment is not covered in this way at any time, there must be opportunity to have any specially difficult passages translated.

Individual assignments for each student of course mean a great amount of work for the instructor, more than he can usually give if he is carrying a full teaching load. An alternate plan which generally accomplishes the desired result is that of dividing the class into sections according to their special interests. The writer has generally read from two to three hundred pages of general text before dividing a class in this way. One year the division is made into a chemistry and a biology group; another year into chemistry, economics, and biology groups; and so forth according to needs. When there were two groups the instructor sat half the time with each, the other working silently by themselves in the meantime. Some years he had a student assistant who was competent to hear the translating of the one group under his supervision. When there were three groups, the teacher sat with each one third of the time, the other two groups meantime working by themselves or under the assistant. The plan proved fully satisfactory. The students were, however, upper classmen who were very much interested in their specialty and therefore also in their language study.

PROBLEMS FOR STUDY

1. Prepare a bibliography on the subject of individual differences in pupils. Provide at least one hundred titles in addition to those given in this chapter.

2. List all practical means, a few original ones if possible, which you would use in an unsegregated class to provide for individual differences.

3. Make a list of rules for study which you yourself have found useful in studying. Report on your own experience with them. Mark any that are original.

Chapter Twelve

Student Activities

THE importance of pupil activity as a factor in the learning process is today undisputed, although actual practice frequently falls short of making adequate provision for it in the classroom. In the modern-language course there is, however, rich opportunity that should be cultivated for the development of pupil activities. These can be made not only to enrich greatly the content of the learning, but to encourage habits of responsibility, initiative, and independence that contribute greatly to pupil growth.

Where pupils are permitted or encouraged to exercise initiative in the selecting and launching of activities and are allowed considerable independence in developing them, the greatest effectiveness will result. Games of various sorts, stimulating and useful as they are as learning devices in the language class, do not always provide for any considerable exercise of such abilities. Individual creative activities, such as the map-making projects described in Chapter Ten or various others suggested in Chapter Eleven, are also of great value in arousing pupil interest and desire to learn but they still do not quite provide for that fullness of experience that brings the school activity entirely within the realm of out-of-school living.

More valuable in this respect in the foreign-language course are such activities as correspondence with foreign students, organizing and administering student clubs, and planning and executing dramatic performances and other programs for some special purpose or occasion. Such undertakings, generally calling for sustained independent effort on the part of the pupil and for originality of thought and expression in varying situations, are the especial concern of this chapter.

INTERNATIONAL STUDENT CORRESPONDENCE AS A PUPIL ACTIVITY

Plans for getting students in two countries acquainted with one another have been in operation for many years in the United States, and even longer in Europe.

The League of Nations Union has borne testimony to the value of such activities and given information about their administration in England: [1] "The Modern Language Association does valuable work in this connection, having distributed during 1934, through the medium of the Office National and the Anglo-German Academic Bureau, the names of 4586 French girl correspondents to English girls. . . . The League of Nations Union has during 1933–1934 supplied 2800 correspondents to English children. These belong to twenty European countries. . . . Over 800 were supplied to the U. S. A. . . . They also arranged (*a*) exchange of whole classes between two countries; (*b*) also of individual children between English schools and foreign schools; and (*c*) exchange of homes between English and foreign children for a fixed period."

Institutions active in the promotion of activities of foreign-language students designed to encourage international acquaintance through correspondence and other activities number eleven in England alone. Among them are the League of Nations Union, Alliance Française, Anglo-German Academic Bureau, Anglo-Spanish Club, and the International Confederation of Students. In the United States various agencies work to these same ends: The Institute of International Education, The Delaware and Smith College Plans for the Junior Year Abroad, L'Alliance Française, the various modern-language associations, foreign information centers, and the various university foreign-language houses.

[1] *Modern-Language Teaching in Relation to World Citizenship.* Also *Geography Teaching in Relation to World Citizenship* (League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London; 1935).

Naturally plans for international exchange of student visits have not gained such momentum in the United States as they have in Europe, but the idea of encouraging international friendships through correspondence has been extensively developed.

Through an international group of interested persons there has been established a bureau in each of several countries, which collects and maintains a list of names and addresses of schools and school systems and of students who wish to enter into correspondence with students in other countries. A fee of ten cents is usually collected from each student who is put in touch with a foreign student. The bureau fades out of sight once it has supplied the correspondent, and the students continue their correspondence under only such supervision as their own schools may want to exert. Each student writes in his own language. The correspondents agree on the subjects they will treat in their letters. Each learns through the letters he receives to read everyday idiomatic language and acquires a good deal of information about the foreign country. The foreign letters received may be read aloud in class so that the entire class profits from them.

A. I. Roehm, who has been the secretary of one of the French correspondence bureaus for years, writes of its work and asserts that it makes of French a living language for our students.[1] He asks teachers to caution their pupils against giving the name and address of their correspondents to any other pupil, since that introduces confusion in the system.

The bureaus in the United States to which the teacher may turn for addresses are the Bureau of Educational Correspondence, Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee, for French; the Junior

[1] "Organization and Educational Objectives of French-American Educational Correspondence," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (Oct., 1928), pp. 57–60; also by the same author, "The National Bureau of Educational Correspondence," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Jan., 1928), pp. 279–280, and Vol. 10 (Oct., 1925), pp. 39–42. See also W. Mohr, "An Experiment in Correspondence," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 4 (May, 1920), pp. 387–396; and Mary Coates, "Vitalizing Spanish Correspondence," *H.*, Vol. 12 (Nov., 1929), pp. 475–478.

Red Cross, Washington, D. C., for Spanish in Spain or South America; for German addresses, the German Service Bureau at the University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

THE JUNIOR-YEAR-ABROAD PLAN

The plan of having a college student spend his junior year in the country whose language he is studying has gained great popularity in the past few years. Many such study years are financed individually but many also are financed by a scholarship grant by the International Institute of Education [1] or some other agency. This institute will give information about such grant-bestowing organizations. Institutions in the foreign country and sometimes the government itself coöperates by helping to supervise the student's work, granting remission of fees, or by some other important service. The foreign government generally grants junior-year-abroad students rebates on steamship and railway travel. The student's work is thoroughly supervised by an American Foreign Committee in each country and the student receives credit at his American college for the work of the year just as though he had spent it in residence here. The Smith College Plan [2] and the Delaware Plan [3] are examples of this idea.

The primary object of the junior year abroad is international understanding and good will and not the training of modern-language teachers. Accordingly any serious and responsible student is eligible, no matter what his major or field of special interest. The broadening influence of this year of study abroad is considerable for students in any field of study.

[1] 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

[2] Address Smith College, Northampton, Massachusetts.

[3] University of Delaware, Newark, Delaware. See also W. Hullihen, "The Junior Year Abroad," *The Thirty-first Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, Part II (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois; 1932), pp. 190–192; also R. Holden, "Ten Years of Undergraduate Study Abroad," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (Nov., 1934), pp. 117–122.

The writer acted for a term as a member of the junior-year-abroad committee and has had opportunity to know the work done by a number of students after returning from their junior year in France or Germany. This experience has inspired the greatest respect for the effectiveness of this foreign study.

Postgraduate scholarships, fellowships, and assistantships in the schools and universities of France, Germany, Spain, Italy, and Switzerland are also available to students well equipped in a modern language. Information about these may also be had from the International Institute. The holders of these scholarships may pursue studies in any branch of learning, especially in the liberal arts and sciences, but law and medical students are being advised to study in the United States rather than abroad.

These postgraduate scholarships generally provide free tuition and advantages in the way of reduced rates for board and room that enable a student to spend a year abroad about as cheaply as he could study at home, even counting in the cost of travel. Certain scholarships and fellowships, for which competition is naturally keen, pay a considerable sum, enough to defray all or nearly all the student's expenses.

FOREIGN-LANGUAGE CLUBS

French, German, Spanish, and Italian clubs are common in colleges. Their most generally defined objects are to afford opportunity for free conversation in the foreign language and to introduce students informally to the foreign civilization through talks, music, lantern slides, moving pictures, radio, dances, festivals, exhibitions, masquerades, and the like. Group singing of foreign songs by the club is common, as is also the arranging of talks by outside speakers, who generally speak in the foreign tongue. Other activities for which the clubs frequently assume responsibility are celebrations of foreign holidays or anniversaries, or the presentation of plays in the foreign language.

The club is commonly administered by the students themselves under the supervision or counsel of a member of the faculty. Meetings are usually held once or twice each month in a school building, although meetings may well be held in private homes upon invitation, and in good weather picnics or hikes, where games, songs, and refreshments are enjoyed in the open, may be substituted for the regular indoor meeting.

Club meetings should be conducted entirely in the foreign language. Only one fluent in its use should serve as president, and all the members must learn to converse freely in it on subjects likely to come up for discussion. They should also learn the forms necessary for conducting the business of meetings in the foreign language. The founding of another club is a slight matter to an American student, unless it has a very special character and function, but when a constitution is to be written and meetings are to be conducted in a foreign language, club organization becomes a novel and stimulating enterprise.

The making of the constitution for a foreign-language club should be seriously undertaken. This is not only essential to the successful functioning of the organization, but it provides valuable exercise in parliamentary procedure and in the use of the foreign language. The constitution of the club should follow a plan something like this:

NAME. This club shall be known as ——.

PURPOSE. It shall be the purpose of this club to ——.

OFFICERS. The officers shall be a President, Vice-President, Secretary, Treasurer, who with —— others elected by the club, shall form the Executive Committee.

ELECTIONS. The officers shall be elected by ballot at the last meeting of the school year. A majority vote of all active members or a two-thirds vote of the quorum present shall be sufficient to elect.

QUORUM. A quorum shall consist of not less than —— active members of the club.

DUTIES OF OFFICERS. The officers of the club shall perform the duties usually associated with their respective offices.

The duties of the Executive Committee shall be to meet —— times each year to plan programs and exercises which shall help to achieve the purposes of the club, and to act on any other necessary items of business between meetings that are not reserved for action by the club.

A member of the Executive Committee shall be designated by the Committee as the Chairman of the Program Committee.

Members. Those who attend the founding meeting and perform the duties prescribed for members shall become charter members. Otherwise a proposed member shall be nominated by at least two members and receive two thirds of the votes cast at a regular meeting of the club.

Associate Members. Associate and honorary members shall be elected in the same way as regular active members.

Duties of Members. It shall be the duty of each member to pay the dues of —— per term (semester, year) and to perform such other tasks as may properly be laid on him by the Executive Committee, particularly to coöperate in the programs of the club. Paid-up active members receive membership cards and are entitled to a vote on all matters for club decision.

Committees. Any further necessary committees, permanent or temporary, shall be elected by the club in such manner as the club may adopt.

Amendments and By-Laws. This constitution may be amended or extended by a two-thirds vote of all active members present at any regular meeting of the club, provided notice of such proposed change has been given at the preceding regular meeting.

It is important for all club members to become familiar with parliamentary terms in the language of their club. Club leaders will plan methods by which these terms may be most easily learned by members. Excerpts from the constitution of a French club will suggest many such phrases that will be found necessary or useful in carrying on club business:

Il faut se donner des Statuts (*constitution*), élire un Bureau (cabinet des officiers).

Une commission, designée par le Président, ou par le cercle, dresse une liste des candidats, et la remet au Président qui la soumet au cercle.

On propose qu'on choisisse le bureau par un vote de vive voix (*word of mouth*), ou par voie de scrutin (*by ballot*), etc.

Le Bureau se compose d'un président, d'un vice-président, d'un secrétaire, et d'un trésorier ou d'un secretaire-trésorier, et d'un conseil d'administration (*board of directors*), qui se compose de —— membres du cercle, etc.

Pour devenir membre du groupe (du cercle) on doit être presenté par deux ou trois membres et être reçu par l'assemblée, payer la cotisation de —— chaque semestre, etc.

Le cercle se réunira le troisième mercredi de chaque mois de septembre à mai, etc.

In the actual conduct of meetings such phrases as the following are to be frequently heard and should be familiar to all members attending meetings:

Le Président déclare la séance ouverte. Le Secrétaire fait l'appel (lit les noms des membres), chaque membre répondra à l'appel en disant "présent."

Le Secrétaire lit le procès-verbal (*minutes*) de la dernière séance. Le Président dit: Y a-t-il des rectifications ou des additions? Si non, le procès-verbal est adopté (accepté) comme lu.

Un membre: Je propose qu'on nomme une commission de programme (de musique, etc.). Un autre membre: J'appuie la motion (la proposition), etc. On vote. La motion est adoptée (ou rejetée), etc.

On discute une motion comme suit. Un membre: M. Président, je demande la parole. M. Président: La parole est à M. Blanc. Je propose de renvoyer la proposition à une commission, etc.

Ou il est proposé d'agréer le compte rendu d'un comité. Le rapport d'un comité est considéré comme une motion. On le discute, modifie, l'adopte, ou le repousse, selon le cas.

Le Président dit à la fin de discussion: Y a-t-il d'autres observations? Si non, nous voterons. Ceux qui votent d'adopter la motion indiquent par "oui." Ceux d'opinion contraire par "non."

Le Président announce que la motion a été adoptée (ou repoussée), selon le cas. Un membre propose qu'on procède à l'election du bureau, et qu'on nomme une commission pour dresser une liste des candidats.

Un autre membre appuie la motion. On vote en levant la main.

Le Président prie le Secrétaire de compter les votes.

Enfin le Président announce: Il y a —— votes pour et —— votes

contre la motion. Elle est donc adoptée (ou rejetée). Ou l'on vote par voie de scrutin. Les membres préparent leurs bulletins de vote. Le scrutateurs (*tellers*) remassent les bulletins et les comptent et communiquent le résultat au Président, qui l'annonce au cercle ainsi: Je déclare que M. —— a été élu Secrétaire, que Mlle. —— a été élue Trésorière du cercle, etc.

The following similar outline of parliamentary phrases in German should prove helpful to members of a German club:

Eine Verfassung (oder die Statuten) wird ausgearbeitet und angenommen.

Der Vorstand oder die Beamten: der Vorsitzende (Präsident), der stellvertretende Vorsitzende (Vize-Präsident), der Schriftführer (der Sekretär), der Schatzmeister.

Wahl der Beamten erfolgt durch Mehrheitsbeschluss, Ende jedes Semesters für das folgende.

Ausschüsse (Komitees): Exekutiv Ausschuss, bestehend aus den obengenannten Beamten; Programkomitee; Musikkomitee, usw.

Mitglied kann jeder Student der Schule werden, usw.

Der Vorsitzende ruft die Versammlung zur Ordnung.

Der Sekretär verliesst das Protokoll.

Wenn keine Berichtigungen vorgeschlagen werden, wird es vom Vorsitzenden genehmigt.

In dem geschäftlichen Teil des Programms (oder der Sitzung) werden Komitee-Berichte entgegengenommen, besprochen und angenommen oder zurückgewiesen.

Neue Komitees werden ernannt, unerledigte Geschäfte besprochen; neue Geschäfte vorgeschlagen; Beschlüsse gefasst; Beamte gewählt; Ankündigungen gemacht, usw.

Wird ein Antrag gestellt (Ich trage an, oder ich schlage vor, dass —) und unterstützt (Ich unterstütze den Antrag), so steht er zur Besprechung (wird er besprochen).

Herr Vorsitzer, ich bitte ums Wort. Der Vorsitzer: Herr oder Fräulein —— hat das Wort. Der Antrag wird gestellt, die Sache einem Komitee zu überweisen. Die Besprechung wird vom Vorsitzer geschlossen. Es wird mit "Ja" und "Nein" abgestimmt.

Der Vorsitzer: Alle, die dafür sind (oder stimmen), belieben "Ja" zu sagen, die dagegen sind, bitte "Nein" zu sagen.

Oder man kann auch durch Stimmzettel abstimmen, oder durch Emporhalten der Hand, usw.

Der Vorsitzer erklärt den Antrag als angenommen, oder abgelehnt.

Die Versammlung ist nicht beschlussfähig (*has not a quorum*); jemand beantragt eine Sache auf den Tisch (des Hauses) zu legen.

Oder jemand beantragt Vertagung der Sache (*dropping the motion*), oder Vertagung der Versammlung (*adjournment*).

Ein Komitee berichtet. Sein Bericht wird besprochen, angenommen, zurückverwiesen (*referred back*), oder abgeändert (*amended*) und angenommen.

Jemand beantragt Abänderung des Berichts, oder irgend eines Antrags.

Bei der Semesterwahl werden zuerst Kandidaten vorgeschlagen, (nominiert).

Ich schlage Herrn —— als Vorsitzenden vor. Ich unterstütze die Nomination, usw.

So wird eine genügende Liste von Kandidaten aufgestellt (zwei oder drei Kandidaten für jedes Amt).

Jemand nimmt die Nomination (die Wahl) an, oder er lehnt sie ab.

Der künstlerische (literarische, geschäftliche) Teil der Sitzung beginnt.

Der Vorsitzende führt die Redner (Künstler) ein, und nennt ihren Beitrag; z.B.: Das erste am Programm ist ein Gesangsolo, "Lied an den Abendstern" aus Richard Wagner's "Meistersinger" von Herrn ——. Die zweite Nummer des Programms ist eine Rede von Fräulein —— über das Thema "Die Frauen in der Musikwelt."

Am Schlusse einer jeden Nummer (Leistung) klatscht man.

Am Schlusse des Programms dankt der Vorsitzer den Beitragenden im Namen des Vereins aufs wärmste.

Oder jemand beantragt einen Dank (ein Dankesvotum) für die Mitglieder oder die Gäste, die am Programm mitgewirkt haben.

Ich beantrage einen Dank für Herrn ——, oder Frl. —— durch Aufstehen.

Es wird unterstützt und angenommen.

Die Versammlung erhebt sich, zum Zeichen ihres Dankes, usw.

Man stellt einen Antrag auf Vertagung. Er wird angenommen, der Verein vertagt sich.

A list of parliamentary terms useful for the Spanish club follows:

Se abre la sesión.
Presidir la sesión.
Pasar lista a los socios.
El secretario leerá las actas de la sesión anterior.
Proponer (o hacer, presentar) una moción para que.

Secundar o apoyar la moción.
¿Hay discusión?
Estar en favor de.
Estar opuesto a, o contra de.
La moción ha sido aprobada.
Votar.
Votar par papeletas.
Por unanimidad de votos.
Discutir.
Tiene palabra el Señor —.
Tratar o discutir un asunto.
Para un asunto de privilegio.
Por tanto.
Acuérdese.
Pasaremos a los informes de las comisiones.
Un informe de una comisión, o un comité.
Emendar.
Modificar.
El nombramiento.
Las multas.
La cuota.
Declara abierta la sesión.
El secretario dará lectura al acta.
¿Hacer una observación al acta?
Si no hay enmiendas o adiciones, quedan aprobadas las actas.
Hay moción que.
Apoyo la moción.
Todos que estén por la moción que digan "sí." Al contrario que digan "no."
La moción ha sido rechezada.
Tomar la votación de viva voz.
Par mayoría de votos.
¿Hay algún asunto más a tratar?
Nombrar.
Señor presidente, pido la palabra.
Para une cuestión de orden.
¿Por cuánto?
Se acuerda.
Tomar un acuerdo.
¿Hay negocios pendientes?
¿Hay negocios nuevos?
Informar.
El informe está aprobado.
Nombrar una comisión.
Socio(s).
Cuotas atrasadas.
Informe de la mayoría o de la minoría.
Un empate.
Los fondos.
Parece que la mayoría aprueba la moción.
El reglamento.
El orden del día.
Proponer se levante o se cierre la sesión.
La moción está aprobada; la sesión queda levantada.

In planning programs for club meetings, it is important to keep in mind that participation of all members of the club is desirable, rather than that of only a few or of outside performers. Certain parts of each meeting must be devoted to activities that call for such participation.

General conversation by the members of the club in the foreign language is to be encouraged at some time in the course of each

meeting. The refreshment period is often designated as the time for such general conversation upon an assigned subject, perhaps on the subject of the program of the meeting. Conversation will, however, be rich and fluent only if members have read up on the subject beforehand, or if the subject has been taken up in the language classes and the necessary information and terminology developed.

Group singing is recommended as a regular feature of every meeting.

Sometimes each member may be asked to answer the roll call with a quotation on the subject of the evening or with a proverb, selection of poetry, or other significant quotation that has been prepared beforehand.

Anniversaries make excellent subjects for program. National or regional festivals and holidays or birthdays of famous persons may well be celebrated by special club programs. Members of the club may be asked to post themselves beforehand on the subject of the celebration, or it may be taken up in the language classes. Names and achievements of great foreign men and women listed on pages 220–227 will prove useful in this connection. If a great person is being honored, each club member may be expected to respond with quotations or important facts about him at roll call. Certain members may be assigned special reports on phases of the great man's life or work.

On the occasion of such programs it is worth while to decorate the stage or the room appropriately. Pictures or statuary representing the hero of the hour may be displayed.

If the person being celebrated is an artist, some of his works may be exhibited. If a musician, some of his works may be performed. If he is a scientist, a statesman, or a saint, reports may be made of his work and achievements, while suitable visual material and realia are in evidence.

Lists of dates appropriate to certain celebrations are given on the following pages.

FRENCH

JANUARY

1 Jour de l'an
du Bellay, d.[1] 1560
6 Jeanne d'Arc, b.[2] 1412
7 Fénelon, d. 1715
8 Verlaine, d. 1896
14 Pierre Loti, b. 1850
15 Molière, b. 1622
16 Ernest About, d. 1885
18 Montesquieu, b. 1689
19 Auguste Comte, b. 1798
20 Jean François Millet, d. 1875
21 Meissonier, d. 1891
23 Stendhal, b. 1783
24 Beaumarchais, b. 1732
27 Renan, b. 1823

FEBRUARY

11 Descartes, d. 1650
12 Marivaux, d. 1763
13 Talleyrand, b. 1754
16 Prud'hon, d. 1823
17 Molière, d. 1763
22 Corot, d. 1875
26 Victor Hugo, b. 1802
28 Montaigne, b. 1533
28 Lamartine, d. 1869

MARCH

6 Taine, d. 1893
8 Berlioz, d. 1869
9 Mazarin, d. 1661
17 La Rochefoucauld, d. 1680
22 Rosa Bonheur, b. 1822
23 Stendhal, d. 1842
26 Sarah Bernhardt, d. 1923
27 Vigny, b. 1797
30 Verlaine, b. 1844
31 Descartes, b. 1596

APRIL

1 Rostand, b. 1864
2 Mirabeau, d. 1791
2 Gambetta, b. 1838
2 Zola, b. 1840
6 Robespierre, b. 1758
9 Rabelais, d. 1553
9 Baudelaire, b. 1821
12 Bossuet, d. 1704
15 Buffon, d. 1788
16 Anatole France, b. 1844
17 Mme. de Sévigné, d. 1696
19 Béranger, b. 1780
20 Manet, d. 1883
22 Mme. de Staël, b. 1766

MAY

1 Musset, d. 1857
8 Lavoisier, d. 1794
8 Flaubert, d. 1880
11 de la Bruyère, d. 1696
11 Mme. Récamier, d. 1849
13 Daudet, b. 1840
20 Balzac, b. 1799
31 George Sand, d. 1876

[1] d. = died [2] b. = born

June

3 Bizet, d. 1875
6 Corneille, b. 1606
18 Battle of Waterloo, 1815
19 Pascal, b. 1623
20 J. de Goncourt, d. 1870
21 Rousseau, d. 1778

July

4 Chateaubriand, d. 1848
6 Maupassant, d. 1893
10 Proust, b. 1871
14 Mme. de Staël, d. 1817
16 Béranger, d. 1857
16 E. de Goncourt, d. 1896
18 Watteau, d. 1721
24 Dumas, père, b. 1802
26 Corot, b. 1796
27 Robespierre, d. 1794

August

1 Lamarck, b. 1744
6 Fénelon, b. 1651
31 Gautier, b. 1811
31 Baudelaire, d. 1867

September

4 Chateaubriand, b. 1768
5 Compte, d. 1857
11 Maurice de Sully, d. 1196
12 Guizot, d. 1874
17 Condorcet, b. 1743
17 Vigny, d. 1863
23 Mérimée, d. 1870
28 Pasteur, d. 1895
30 Chénier, b. 1762

October

3 Saint-Saëns, b. 1835
13 Anatole France, d. 1924
18 Gounod, d. 1893
25 Bizet, b. 1838
26 Danton, b. 1759

November

7 Mme. Curie, b. 1867
8 César Franck, d. 1890
14 Rodin, b. 1840
19 Poussin, d. 1665
21 Voltaire, b. 1694
25 St. Catherine's Day

December

3 Rostand, d. 1918
9 Berlioz, b. 1803
10 Musset, b. 1810
12 Flaubert, b. 1821
17 Daudet, d. 1897
18 Lamarck, d. 1829
21 Racine, b. 1639
23 Sainte-Beuve, b. 1804
24 Regnier, b. 1864
25 Noël
26 Bazin, b. 1853
27 Pasteur, b. 1822
28 Bayle, d. 1706
29 Feuillet, d. 1890
31 Gambetta, d. 1882

GERMAN

JANUARY

1 Neujahrstag
2 Rauch, b. 1777
4 A. Feuerbach, d. 1880
6 Charlotte von Stein, d. 1827
7 Peter Vischer, d. 1529
9 Busch, d. 1908
10 Droste-Hülshoff, b. 1797
12 Pestalozzi, b. 1746
12 F. von Schlegel, d. 1829
15 Grillparzer, b. 1791
16 Böcklin, d. 1901
17 von Steinbach, d. 1318
19 Sachs, d. 1576
20 Wieland, d. 1813
22 Lessing, b. 1729
24 Friedrich der Grosze, b. 1712
27 Mozart, b. 1756
29 Fichte, d. 1814
31 Schubert, b. 1797

FEBRUARY

9 Menzel, d. 1905
10 Röntgen, d. 1923
11 Ludwig, b. 1813
12 Kant, d. 1804
12 Schleiermacher, d. 1834
13 Wagner, d. 1883
14 Gutenberg, d. 1468
15 Lessing, d. 1781
17 Heine, d. 1856
18 Luther, d. 1546
22 Schopenhauer, b. 1788
22 Hugo Wolf, d. 1903
23 Händel, b. 1685

MARCH

2 Karl Schurz, b. 1829
8 von Zeppelin, d. 1917
10 Eichendorff, b. 1788
13 Hugo Wolf, b. 1860
14 Klopstock, d. 1803
14 Karl Marx, d. 1883
18 Hebbel, b. 1813
21 Bach, b. 1685
22 Maximilian I, b. 1459
22 Goethe, d. 1832
25 Novalis, d. 1801
26 Beethoven, d. 1827
27 Röntgen, b. 1845
31 Bunsen, b. 1811

APRIL

1 Haydn, b. 1732
1 von Bismarck, b. 1815
3 Brahms, d. 1897
6 Dürer, d. 1528
7 von Kaulbach, d. 1874
14 Händel, d. 1759
19 Melanchthon, d. 1560
21 Fröbel, b. 1782
22 Kant, b. 1724

MAY

6 A. von Humboldt, d. 1859
6 von Lenbach, d. 1904
9 Schiller, d. 1805
13 Empress Maria Theresa, b. 1717
19 Fichte, b. 1762
21 Dürer, b. 1471
22 Wagner, b. 1813
23 von Ranke, d. 1886
27 Koch, d. 1910

June

4 Mörike, d. 1875
8 Schumann, b. 1810
11 Richard Strauss, b. 1864

July

1 Leibniz, b. 1646
2 Klopstock, b. 1724
8 von Zeppelin, b. 1838
16 Keller, d. 1890
18 R. Huch, b. 1864
28 Bach, d. 1750
29 Schumann, d. 1856
30 von Bismarck, d. 1898
31 Liszt, d. 1886

August

16 Wundt, b. 1832
17 Friedrich der Grosze, d. 1786
25 Herder, b. 1744
25 Nietzsche, d. 1900
28 Goethe, b. 1749
31 Helmholtz, b. 1821

September

2 Ostwald, b. 1853
7 Mörike, b. 1804
7 Raabe, b. 1831
14 A. von Humboldt, b. 1769
21 Schopenhauer, d. 1860
25 Johann Strauss, d. 1849
28 Richter, b. 1803

October

2 von Hindenburg, b. 1847
9 Schinkel, d. 1841
15 Nietzsche, b. 1844
16 Kranach, d. 1553
16 Böcklin, b. 1827
22 Liszt, b. 1811

November

1 Mommsen, d. 1903
5 Sachs, b. 1494
7 Reuter, b. 1810
10 Schiller, b. 1759
14 Leibniz, d. 1716
14 Hegel, d. 1831
15 Kepler, d. 1630
15 Hauptmann, b. 1862
19 Schubert, d. 1828
22 Kleist, d. 1811
26 Eichendorff, d. 1857
29 Maria Theresa, d. 1780

December

3 Rauch, d. 1857
5 Mozart, d. 1791
11 Koch, b. 1843
13 Hebbel, d. 1863
16 van Beethoven, b. 1770
24 Weihnachtsabend
25 Weihnacht

SPANISH[1]

January

1 Año Nuevo
1 Murillo, b. 1618
4 Galdós, d. 1920
20 Quintero, b. 1873
21 Marquina, b. 1879
29 Ibáñez, b. 1867

February

6 de Pereda, b. 1833
6 Dario, d. 1916
17 Becquer, b. 1836
21 Zorilla, b. 1817
28 Catholic made State Church in Spain, 589

March

1 de Pereda, d. 1906
5 de Zarate, d. 1658
10 de Moratín, d. 1760
10 de Alarcón, d. 1833
11 Quintana, d. 1857
12 Tirso de Molina, d. 1648
18 Valdés, b. 1809
28 Ramón de la Cruz, b. 1731
28 Santa Teresa, b. 1515
29 El Greco, d. 1631
30 de Goya, b. 1746

April

3 Murillo, d. 1682
9 Moreto y Cabaña, b. 1618
11 Quintana, b. 1772
16 de Goya, d. 1828
18 Juan Valera, d. 1905
19 Echegaray, b. 1833
23 Cervantes, d. 1616
24 Padre F. de Isla, b. 1703
25 Leopoldo Alas (Clarín), b. 1852
27 Magellan, d. 1521
29 Pi y Margall, b. 1824

May

1 Lopez de Ayala, b. 1829
2 El dos de Mayo, national festival of Spanish revolt against French, 1808
6 Gutierrez, d. 1877
6 de Heredía, d. 1839
9 Ortega y Gassett, d. 1883
10 Galdós, b. 1843
11 de Saavedra, d. 1865
11 de Moratín, d. 1780
15 Fiesta de San Isidro
25 Pedro Calderón de la Barca, d. 1681

[1] The author acknowledges gratefully the help of his colleague, Professor Willis K. Jones, on the Spanish anniversaries and Spanish bibliography.

June

6 Velasquez, d. 1599
9 Nuñez de Arce, d. 1903
11 Ruíz (Azorín), b. 1874
12 Columbus discovered mainland of America, 1492
12 L. Alas (Clarín), b. 1901
18 Real Academia of Seville, founded 1752
20 de Espinosa, b. 1600
21 Tamayo y Baus, d. 1898
23 Duque de Rivas, d. 1865
25 de Montalván, d. 1638
27 de Soto, American explorer, d. 1542
30 Montezuma, Aztec emperor, d. 1520

July

5 Gutierrez, b. 1806
6 González, d. 1872
10 de Alarcón, d. 1891
11 de Argote y Góngora, b. 1561
14 de la Vega, b. 1807
18 J. Zuloaga y Zabalete, b. 1870
21 de Moratín, d. 1828
31 Ignacio de Loyola, d. 1556

August

5 Velasquez, d. 1660
7 de Ercilla y Zuñiga, b. 1533
9 R. P. de Ayala, b. 1881
12 Benavente, b. 1866
23 Tomas de Iriarte, d. 1791
26 Lope de Vega, d. 1635
29 Machado y Ruiz, b. 1874
30 Fiesta de Santa Rosa de Lima, Patron Saint of Lima and Peru

September

8 de Quevedo, d. 1645
14 Echegaray, d. 1916
16 Tamayo y Baus, b. 1829
16 Pardo Bazán, b. 1852
18 Tomas de Iriarte, b. 1750
24 de Campoamor, b. 1817
29 de Unamuno, b. 1864

October

4 Valdés, b. 1853
6 Escrich, b. 1829
9 Cervantes, b. 1547
12 El día de la raza, national holiday
15 de Valdés Leal, d. 1690
18 Juan Valera, b. 1824
24 Picasso, b. 1881
26 Moreto y Cabana, d. 1669

November

4 de la Cruz, d. 1795
7 Zurbarán, b. 1598
8 Ximénez de Cisneros, d. 1517
16 R. J. Cuervo, b. 1801
16 de Ercilla y Zúñiga, d. 1594
25 Lope de Vega, b. 1562
29 Pi y Margall, d. 1901

DECEMBER

22 Becquer, d. 1870
24 Caballero, b. 1796
24 Jiménez, b. 1881
25 Día de Navidad
27 Pidal, d. 1915
28 Pío Baroja, b. 1872
30 A. Lopez de Ayala, d. 1879
31 Murillo, b. 1617
31 de Heredia, b. 1803
31 Fray Luis de Granada, d. 1585

LATIN-AMERICAN

JANUARY 18 Rubén Darío, b. 1867

FEBRUARY 1 Gertrude Gomez de Avellaneda, d. 1873
FEBRUARY 14 Domingo Sarmiento, b. 1811
FEBRUARY 19 Augusto Leguía, b. 1864
FEBRUARY 25 José de San Martín, b. 1778

MARCH 23 Gertrude Gomez de Avellaneda, b. 1814

MAY 15 Carlos de la Torre, b. 1858

JULY 15 Enrique Rodó, b. 1872

AUGUST 17 José de San Martín, d. 1850
AUGUST 20 Bernardo O'Higgins, b. 1776

SEPTEMBER 11 Domingo Sarmiento, d. 1888

OCTOBER 24 Bernardo O'Higgins, d. 1842

DECEMBER 17 Simón Bolivar, liberator of South America, d. 1830
DECEMBER 22 Maria Teresa Carreno, b. 1853

DRAMATICS

The planning and presenting of plays in a foreign language provides a very popular and effective form of student activity. Informal dramatization of short skits in classes or club meetings may be an effective means of arousing an initial interest in dramatics that may later be more fully developed, and it will often prove of definite educative value in itself. For these, formal coaching is not necessary. It is best to allow students a free hand in developing them. The delight in free and pleasurable self-expression for an appreciative audience will be the student's motivation to this very valuable linguistic exercise. Teacher

interference must never be permitted to dull this enjoyment. If, however, prepared dramatic performances are to be given, with studied staging and costuming, teacher aid may be necessary and welcome. A certain number of such prepared performances are recommended as a part of the activities of the language class or club.

Plays to be produced should first be read in class. The cast and various committees will then prepare in outside time for the production of them.

Following is a list of plays suitable for presentation by school clubs or classes. Many of these are one-act plays.

FRENCH

BANVILLE, THÉODORE FAULLAIN DE. *Gringoire.* Holt
BENTON, CHARLES W. *Easy French Plays.* Scott, Foresman
BERNARD, TRISTAN. *L'Anglais tel qu'on le parle.* Oxford
COPPÉE, FRANÇOIS. *Le passant.* Holt
—— *Le luthier de Crémone.* Holt
—— *Le luthier de Crémone* and *Le trésor.* Allyn & Bacon
COURTELINE. "La paix chez soi," in Fite's *Four Contemporary One-Act Plays.* Heath
DONDO, MATHURIN MARIUS, and PERLEY, M. E. *French Fairy Plays.* Oxford
DUPRÈS, MARGUERITE. *Drames et Comédies.* (For girls.) American Book
DUVERNOIS. "La Dame de bronze et le Monsieur de Cristal," in Fite's *Four Contemporary One-Act Plays.* Heath
FOURE, MME. HÉLÈNE (SELTER). *Six petites pièces gaies.* Winston
FRANCE, ANATOLE. *La comédie de celui qui épousa une femme muette.* Holt
FRANÇOIS, VICTOR EMMANUEL. *Fifteen French Plays.* Allyn & Bacon
FRAZER, LILLY GROVE. *French Plays.* Macmillan
HUTCHINSON, ELEANOR W. *Le chevalier de Blanchefleur et autres pièces.* Heath
JAMIESON. *Rire et Sourire.* (Four comedies.) Appleton
LABICHE, EUGÈNE MARIN. *La lettre chargée.* Ginn
—— *La grammaire.* Heath
—— *Un jeune homme pressé.* Holt
LABICHE, EUGÈNE MARIN, and DELACOUR, A. C. L. *Les petits oiseaux.* Scribner
LABICHE, EUGÈNE MARIN, and MARTIN, ÉDOUARD. *La poudre aux yeux.* Allyn & Bacon
—— *Le voyage de Monsieur Perrichon.* Heath
—— *Moi.* Allyn & Bacon

LEGOUVÉ, ERNEST, and LABICHE, EUGÈNE MARIN. *La cigale chez les fourmis.*
MAUREY, MAX. *Rosalie.* Ginn
—— *Le Chauffeur.* Ginn
MÉRAS, LESLIE ROSS, and MÉRAS, E. A. *Eight One-act Plays.* Harcourt
MOINAUX, JULES. *Les deux sourds.* Heath
MULLINS. *Six farces d'antan.* Follett
RENARD. "Poil de carotte," in Fite's *Four Contemporary One-Act Plays.* Heath
ROSTAND, EDMOND. *Les Romanesques.* Ginn
DE SAUZÉ, ÉMILE BLAIS. *Sept comédies modernes.* Holt
SETCHANOVE, L. J. *Five French Comedies.* Allyn & Bacon
SIMPSON, EMMA L. *Five Easy French Plays.* Ginn
SOUVESTRE, PIERRE, and ALLAIN, MARCEL. *Théâtre pour la jeunesse.* Brentano
SPINK, JOSETTE EUGÉNIE. *French Plays for Children.* Heath

GERMAN

BENEDIX, RODERICH. *Eigensinn.* Holt
—— *Die Hochzeitsreise.* Heath
—— *Nein.* Heath
BENEDIX, RODERICH, and FULDA, L. *Der Prozess* and *Unter vier Augen.* Holt
BURKHARDT, HEINRICH FRIEDRICH KARL LUDWIG. *Vier Kleine Lustspiele.* Heath
DIAMOND, W., and SCHOMAKER, C. B. *Lust and Leid.* Holt
ERNST, OTTO. *Flachsmann als Erzieher.* Ginn
FREYTAG, GUSTAV. *Die Journalisten.* Heath
FULDA, LUDWIG. *Die Gegenkandidaten.* Heath
GÖTT, E. *Der Schwarzkünstler.* Prentice-Hall
JAEGER, HANS (ed.). *Moderne Einakter.* Crofts
LESSING, GOTTHOLD EPHRAIM. *Minna von Barnhelm.* Heath
MANLEY, EDWARD, and ALLEN, P. S. *Four German Comedies.* Ginn
MOSER, GUSTAV VON. *Der Bibliothekar.* Ginn
SCHAFFRATH, WILLIAM. *Alte Jugend-Freunde.* (Contains *Einer musz heiraten.*) Prentice-Hall
SCHILLER, JOHANN CHRISTOPH FRIEDRICH VON. *Der Neffe als Onkel.* Heath
WELLS, BENJAMIN WILLIS. *Drei Kleine Lustspiele.* Heath

SPANISH

AZA, VITAL. *Tres piezas cómicas.* Heath
BENEVENTE, JACINTO. *Tres comedias.* Heath
BUCETO, ERASMO, and CORNISH, BEATRICE (eds.). *Tres comedias contemporáneas en un acto y en prosa.* Holt
CALDERÓN DE LA BARCA, PEDRO. *El alcalde de Zalamea.* Heath

CALDERÓN DE LA BARCA, PEDRO. *Three Plays* (Geo. T. Northrup, ed.). Heath
CARRION, RAMÓN, and AZA, VITAL. *Zaragüeta.* Heath
—— *Tres comedias modernas.* Sanborn
DORADO, MARCIAL. *Chispitas.* Ginn
ECHEGARAY Y EIZAGUIRRE, JOSÉ. *El gran galeoto.* Heath
—— *O locura o santidad.* Heath
GALDÓS, PÉREZ. *Mariucha.* Heath
GUTIERREZ, GARCIA. *El trovador.* Heath
HARTZENBUSCH, JUAN EUGENIO. *Los amantes de Teruel.* Heath
KURZ, HARRY, and WOFSY, S. A. *Comedias y juegos.* Century
LARRA, MARIANO J. DE. *No más mostrador.* Heath
LINARES, RIVAS. *El abalengo.* Heath
LURIA, MAX A. *Lecturas elementales* (*Dialogues*). Macmillan
MARQUINA, E. *En Flandes se ha puesto el sol.* Heath
MORLEY, S. G., and ENTWHISTLE, W. J. *Tres sainetes en verso.* Heath
NORTHRUP, G. T. *Ten Spanish Farces* (from classical authors). Heath
NUÑEZ DE ARCE, GASPAR. *El haz de leña.* Heath
QUINTEROS, J. A. *La flor de la vida.* Heath
—— *Doña Clarines* and *Mañana de sol.* Heath
TAMAYO Y BAUS, MANUEL. *Lo positivo.* Heath

GAMES

Games are stimulating and effective in clubs and classes in secondary schools and colleges as well as with younger children. Certain well-known, simple, linguistic games may be played on any level of maturity and ability. Some of these will be described briefly here.

THE OBSERVATION GAME

A dozen or more articles are placed on a desk. Pupils walk past this slowly, observing the articles. They then return to their seats and write out a list of the foreign names of the articles. The exercise may be made to provide more language practice by including the color of the objects, as, a red book, a brown lead pencil — or some other attribute or indication of the use of the articles may be observed and listed, such as a large red book for reading, a short brown pencil for writing, a sharp new knife for sharpening pencils, etc.

THE VEGETABLE GAME

The leader calls on a pupil to name a vegetable. The pupil must do so before the leader counts ten in the foreign language or he will be counted out. The ones who remain in the group longest are the winners. This game may be similarly played with names of flowers, birds, garments, domestic animals, wild animals, schoolroom objects, foods and drinks — perhaps limited to those served for breakfast, supper, or dinner — times of the day, days of the week, months, seasons, or any other classification of names. The pupil who wins one game may become leader of the next.

A SYNONYMS AND ANTONYMS GAME

After the class has sufficient vocabulary, the teacher may write on the board a list of common words, each of which has an easy synonym. The pupils supply the synonym for each. Antonyms or cognates may be asked for in the same way.

THE I-AM-THINKING-OF-AN-OBJECT GAME

Guessing the object the leader has in mind is a game familiar in all languages, and may be played in the language-study groups to good effect. Questions about the object must be such that they can be answered by "yes" or "no." The game may sometimes be played about famous men or women rather than objects. Where this is done, there will probably be a need for preparation in advance.

A variation of this game is to pin the name of a great man or woman on the back of each player and then to have each guess whom he represents. The one who takes longest to guess gets the booby prize.

THE DEFINITION GAME

The definition game is more difficult than the yes-or-no games, but provides excellent linguistic exercise. The leader addresses

himself to one of the group by saying some word in the language being studied. The one addressed must define it in the foreign language before the leader counts to twenty, or be counted out of the game. This game can be made as easy or hard as desired.

THE POLITE-PHRASES GAME

A game to provide drill on a useful set of phrases will be valuable in the language-study group. The leader turns suddenly to one of the group, and asks him to give one of the common polite locutions. If the person addressed cannot give a locution before the leader counts ten, he is out. The game may be limited to expressions of greeting and taking leave, of felicitation and congratulation, regret or pleasure, of introducing two persons and acknowledging introductions, of address and closing in letters.

GEOGRAPHY GAMES

Geography games are good fun and good exercise in any language. The leader turns suddenly to one of the group and asks him to name an example of some specified geographical feature in the country being studied. If the one addressed fails to do so before the leader counts five, he is out of the game. The one who remains in longest becomes the next leader. Small groups are best for this game. The game may be played with names of cities, mountains, rivers, provinces, states within the state, departments, regions, agricultural products of the country, fruits, industrial products, industries, mineral products, kinds of schools, national recreations, great natural scenes or attractions, great national holidays and feast days, national types, races, or regional stems with an appropriate adjective, or adjectives, describing the character of each.

D. Hieronimus [1] has described games that can be played in any language for the improvement of language skills.

[1] "Picture Games," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pp. 111–113.

S. Taub has written of a *Buchstabenspiel* which can be played in any language.[1]

There are also on the market games manufactured for the use of language classes. Tatiana Boldyreff has compiled a list of such games.[2] A proverbs game is offered by L. Johnson to increase the student's knowledge of idioms and his vocabulary.[3] S. M. Hinz has prepared a great list of German games, puzzles, and conundrums, which is sold for a few cents.[4]

SELF-ACTIVITY OF STUDENTS AFTER GRADUATION

An investigation made by M. V. O'Shea,[5] the unpublished replies to a questionnaire sent out by the Study,[6] and a study by G. H. Betts and R. A. Kent,[7] all bear testimony to the fact that students who have graduated from language classes undertake in considerable numbers self-directed learning activities. From such studies as those cited language departments in schools and colleges can learn much about the needs of the students and can develop an invaluable post-school service for them.

Language-department bulletins mailed to former pupils and other interested persons as well as special articles in student or alumni publications may offer much help in the development of post-school foreign-language study.

Bibliographies have been found to be of special value in this connection, suggesting sources of information on special subjects

[1] *G.Q.*, Vol. 2 (May, 1929), pp. 95–99.

[2] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (March, 1931), pp. 440–443.

[3] *Bulletin of the Wisconsin Association of Modern Foreign Language Teachers*, No. 98, pp. 3–6 (University of Wisconsin; Dec., 1932).

[4] *M.f.U.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1930), pp. 20–28; (Mar., 1930), pp. 116–119. To be had from the University of Wisconsin Service Bureau, Madison.

[5] *The Reading of Modern Languages* (United States Office of Education, Washington; 1927).

[6] See A. Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Languages in the United States*, pp. 14 ff. (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

[7] *Foreign Language Equipment of 2325 Doctors of Philosophy* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois; 1929).

as well as titles of material that may be read for pleasure or cultural enrichment. Such bibliographies should be always complete, giving, in the case of books, author's name, full title of book, publisher's name and address, and price, along with some indication of contents and an appraisement of the work. Magazine articles should also be fully identified and annotated. Through such bibliographies modern-language departments may do much to build up and keep alive an active interest in continuing language study. Both professional and non-professional persons may be encouraged in the habit of foreign-language reading, and collections of foreign books may be built up for community use. Universities may offer to lend specially needed titles, and individuals may be urged to contribute low-priced volumes to the public libraries in their communities.

The encouragement of continuing independent language activity on the part of post-graduate students will prove rich in rewards for the individuals and contribute to the building of a public opinion that will finally redound to the advantage of language instruction in the schools and colleges.

PROBLEMS FOR STUDY

1. Write an account of the founding meeting of a French, German, Spanish, or Italian club. Write in the foreign language if possible.
2. Draw up a constitution and by-laws for the club. Do this also in the foreign language if you can.

Chapter Thirteen

Administrative Problems

ADMINISTRATIVE functions in the modern-language department are variously provided for in different types of school systems.

In the smallest high schools, where there is likely to be only one modern-language teacher or at most one teacher for each language taught, much administrative responsibility must necessarily rest with the individual teachers. It will be only rarely that the principal or superintendent is equipped to exercise intelligent direction of the language teaching in these schools, nor is the teacher of one language generally qualified to assume oversight of the teaching of other languages. The individual teachers will accordingly largely direct their own work, under the general direction of the school principal.

Where there are several modern-language teachers there is or should be a specially appointed head who exercises general supervision of the department. This department head works under the direction of the school principal and is appointed by him. The teaching load of department heads will of course be made light in proportion as their administrative duties are heavy. In small schools where leadership of a department involves little extra work, there is no relief from regular teaching duties, and no extra pay; the head may be elected each year by the members of the department from their number.

Although final responsibility for departmental functioning must always rest on the department head, where there is one, and he will use his own methods of administering it, matters of policy will frequently be determined by the democratic process of group discussion and vote. Department meetings may well be made the occasion for discussion on any problems that concern

all members of the staff — among them the supervisor's or department head's findings concerning classroom conditions, results of departmental tests, cases of individual students, etc. The departmental conference will prove a rich opportunity for the skillful supervisor to improve the work of his department.

In some instances a cabinet of all department heads in the school works under the leadership of the principal to orient departmental policies to the educational objectives of the whole school and to provide for a maximum of coöperation and coördination among departments.

In large school systems there is a special supervisor of all modern-language teaching, who has general responsibility for the policies of all the language departments in the system. Many of the duties that fall on department heads in smaller systems will be taken care of by the supervisor. This supervisor, who will of course be a specialist in the field of modern-language teaching, will be directly responsible to the superintendent of schools.

Avery Skinner [1] reports that state supervision of modern-language teaching is effected by state syllabi and examinations and by correspondence and conference between department heads or other local administrative officers and the state supervisor. This state supervision in some instances results in a highly centralized direction of language teaching.

THE NEED FOR CENTRALIZED ADMINISTRATION

But whatever the organization of administrative functions in the language department, it is essential that they be provided for in some way wherever several teachers are teaching one subject. Otherwise the work of the department will lack coördination and general direction. One of the obvious consequences

[1] "Examination and Inspection Division: Modern Languages," *Thirtieth Annual Report of the Education Department*, pp. 209–210 (University of New York, Albany; 1934).

of such a situation is that transfer of pupils from one teacher or section to another, which is very frequently unavoidable and even desirable, will include overlappings and gaps in the instructional plan with consequent rank injustice to students and a lowering of general achievement.

Proper administration of a department should also have the effect of raising the general standard of teaching by providing stimulus and direction to the teachers. The wise administrator will detect weaknesses and errors and suggest remedies for them. He will define high standards of achievement and keep them continually before the teachers, suggesting and providing practical help to their attainment.

The duties of the department administrator may perhaps be generally indicated in three main classifications.

1. He must keep his teachers continually aware of the objectives of their teaching and must provide for basic agreement on these among department members.

2. He must see that the curriculum provides for the most complete and useful language training possible. This task involves planning of courses and selection of pupils who shall be admitted to them.

3. He will be responsible for the establishment of teaching methods and the provision of equipment that will contribute most effectively to realization of the objectives defined.

W. S. Deffenbaugh some years ago made a study of the administrative functions of department heads in 124 large high schools in New York State in which he found a head either for each or several or all of the language departments in the school.[1] The duties are listed along with the percentage of the schools in which each is found. The department head recommends textbooks, 97; visits classes to oversee instruction, 95; holds department conferences, 88; prepares lesson plans, 75; prepares

[1] "Study of Heads of High School Departments and Their Functions," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 37 (March, 1929), pp. 161–164.

syllabi or courses, 73; holds conferences with individual teachers, 69; lays out work units, 63; rates teachers, 51; recommends teachers for positions, 50; gives model lessons, 47; interviews candidates for positions, 44; discusses ratings with teachers, 41; recommends salary increases, 19.

QUALITIES OF THE SUCCESSFUL ADMINISTRATOR

The wise department head will be a person skillful in the cultivation of happy personal relations and in the creation of a wholesome and stimulating spirit in his department. He will be able to improve the standard of work in his department exactly to the extent that he creates wholesome relations with each of his teachers. Whatever policies he adopts will be thoughtfully appraised in the light of their probable effect on the feelings and attitudes of his teachers, their zeal for their task, their good will, coöperativeness, and loyalty toward one another and the administration. He will be ready with encouragement rather than fault-finding. His teachers' weaknesses will provide his opportunity for helpful and stimulating service rather than for discouraging complaint.

In order to stimulate wholesome attitudes in his teachers, the administrator must at all times maintain a reasonable and professional point of view toward his task. His vision must be broad, so that statistical detail or red tape of organization will never interfere with the best functioning of teachers. Clerical work must be required of teachers only when it serves a necessary or important function and can reasonably be expected of the teacher without interfering with his teaching efficiency.

The good administrator will of course be a person who acts from devotion to the welfare of his department and his school rather than from any selfish personal ambition. He will never be willing to sacrifice the interests of his department to his own advancement, nor will he lose sight of the general welfare of the school system in his concern for the progress of his department.

PROBLEMS CALLING FOR ADMINISTRATIVE ATTENTION

Although mortality in the modern languages is no greater than in other branches of the curriculum,[1] it is still serious enough to demand thoughtful analysis. About 43 per cent of all students enrolling in modern-language courses fail in them or drop out for various reasons at or before the end of the first year.[2] Studies of the factors responsible for this pupil mortality suggest various needs for administrative action.

Perhaps the most significant findings on this question are those reported by F. D. Cheydleur.[3] On the basis of extensive testing and other methods of analysis of the situation, he concluded that the causes of pupil failure were in general four: (1) ineffective methods of teaching, (2) misclassification of students, assigning them to wrong grade levels, (3) division of interest and energy of instructor between graduate work and teaching, (4) overlarge size of classes. All these conditions suggest opportunities for remedial administrative action.

Another study of mortality and its causes revealed an additional condition requiring administrative attention. E. F. Engel [4] found that 80 per cent of the college students in foreign-language courses who had studied a language in high school had dropped the one they had studied in high school and begun another in college. Although three of the five reasons that he advanced for this situation indicated no conditions requiring

[1] Results on College Entrance Examination Board examinations for June, 1925, showed fewer failures in modern languages than in other subjects.

[2] A. Coleman, *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, p. 26 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

[3] "Mortality of Modern Language Students: Its Causes and Prevention," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Nov., 1932), pp. 104–136. See also D. F. Bond, "Causes of Failure in Elementary French and Spanish at the College Level," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 32 (April, 1924), pp. 276–287; and B. E. McCormick, "A Study of Failures," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 30 (June, 1922), pp. 431–432.

[4] "Why Do Not College Students Continue the Foreign Language Begun in High School?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (March, 1932), pp. 500–503.

remedy, the fourth one suggested was that high-school preparation was so poor and the fifth that there had been such a long interval between the high-school language course and college that continuing the high-school course would have been very difficult. There are here indicated two administrative problems — the development of sound teaching and provision for bridging the gap between high-school and college courses.

Tharp's survey of research and experimental studies in the field of language teaching [1] showed a wide variety of changes found to have been made in the years 1935 and 1936 in the organization and method of language courses. These again suggest problems of method, curriculum, and organization with which department administrators have dealt and will have to deal in their efforts to work for continuous improvement in foreign-language instruction.

Increased stress on reading; less on grammar
New classes added
Studies of civilizations added — taught in English or the foreign language
Revision of course of study
French, German, Spanish, or Italian added
Study time and graduate requirements increased
New courses in general language offered
New textbooks used
Study time reduced
Minor changes in organization
Some classes dropped
Comprehensive examinations for graduation adopted
Placement tests at entrance and intervals
French, German, or Spanish dropped
Graduating requirements reduced
Terminal course for non-continuants initiated
More drill, grammar, composition, or intensive repetition

[1] J. B. Tharp, "Third Annual Survey of Research and Experimentation in Modern Foreign Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Oct., 1936), p. 39.

General language dropped or delayed
Plans for class acceleration adopted
Major in combined languages offered
Foreign-language requirements for B.S. or A.B. degree abolished
Methods course given by foreign-language instead of education department
Outside reading in foreign languages accepted for graduation requirement
Junior-high-school language courses abandoned
First- and second-year offering alternated
Offerings limited to one foreign language
Comprehensive examinations abolished
Practice teaching in a French minor allowed in situations where there are no majors
Stress put on phonetics
Reading knowledge of the language required of modern-language majors
Foreign language begun in fifth and sixth grades

SELECTION OF TEACHING EQUIPMENT

An important part of the administrator's work will be to see that materials of instruction for his department are suitable and adequate. He will confer with teachers regarding their needs and opinions, and he will acquaint himself, and perhaps request certain members of his staff especially to acquaint themselves, with available materials for use in the language courses. Such materials of instruction are continually becoming more and more ample in the best schools.

Of all the instructional equipment of the language classroom books are of course the most important. In discussion of the various special fields of language study there has already been some discussion of the qualities desirable in the foreign-language textbook or reader. These the department administrator should always have well in mind. He should also keep himself well informed regarding available books in his field.

Gosling has published lists of texts available for the various

languages.[1] Pauline Goode has made an extensive bibliography of Spanish books available for use in junior-high-school classes.[2] Textbook publishers will supply catalogues and circulars descriptive of their offerings in the foreign-language field upon request. These should be judged according to carefully designed standards and specifications.

Periodicals will also be important in the modern-language class and should be chosen and provided for with as much care as books. Where department appropriations do not provide for ample foreign-language periodical materials for pupils, and where the financial condition of pupils is undoubtedly good, the administrator may approve or suggest plans for having classes subscribe as a group to newspapers and magazines that might prove profitable and pleasant reading.

The wise administrator will be alert to discover or to think of teaching equipment other than books that may improve the efficiency of work in his department. He will see that his department gets its fair share of appropriations for pictures, realia, projectoscope, radio, phonograph and records, games, and other devices that may stimulate and direct learning. Once equipment has been obtained by the foreign-language department, the responsible head will see that it is properly cared for and made equitably available to the various teachers in the department.

Learning tools, it may be suggested, are necessary not only for the pupils but for the teachers. In even a fair-sized system the school should provide a reasonable amount of material that may likely prove more useful to the teachers than to the students. Good dictionaries, an encyclopedia, at least one history of the foreign civilization, perhaps other books for informational reference, and

[1] J. W. Gosling, "Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools, A Committee Report," *The North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. 1 (June, 1926), p. 123. See also E. M. Clark, "Report of the Committee on Foreign Languages in Junior High School," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1927), pp. 12–18.

[2] "Some Easy Spanish Books for Children," *H.*, Vol. 10 (Oct., 1927), pp. 271–278.

last, but not least, editions of the most important authors should be always available to encourage continuing teacher study and reading. Arrangements may perhaps be made to have these latter purchased abroad by some teacher who is making a summer trip. Preparation of a list for such purchase abroad will mean a considerable saving in their cost.

Where school funds are inadequate for purchase of sufficient materials for teacher use, the tactful administrator may be able to arouse interest in book- or record-lending clubs, or in group purchases by teachers of materials that might be collectively agreed on.

GRADE-PLACEMENT OF COURSES

General planning of the language curriculum will be one of the first duties for the department administrator. In this connection it is of course essential to determine the character and grade placement of courses and the level of difficulty to be set in them.

The grade-placement of foreign languages is a matter that has come in for serious consideration. It has come to be the general conviction that there should be taught in the elementary grades only those subjects that all pupils need and that all can afford. Although these same subjects will be continued in the secondary schools, there will be others added there, offering pupils the opportunity for the development of special individual interests and capacities. It accordingly seems certain that in this country, where the intercourse of daily life or even of the transaction of business demands knowledge of only the English language, there is no place for foreign languages in the common school below the seventh-grade level. Such teaching is in fact liable to be detrimental to the purpose of encouraging unanimity of culture and thought in a naturally heterogeneous population. Where specialization begins, where pupils branch out from the fundamentals of general education according to their individual bents or circumstances, there it is believed is the very earliest place at which

foreign languages should be offered. In the present school set-up this change occurs at the beginning of junior high school.

Foreign-language courses are accordingly no longer commonly given below the junior high school. Only in occasional private and public schools are language offerings found in elementary grades. Discussions of language teaching on these lower levels may be found in numerous magazine articles.[1]

Insofar, however, as conversational ability is an aim of language instruction, the early years are generally considered best for the foreign-language study. The vocal organs are more pliable then than later and the inhibitions of adults have not yet set in.[2] Besides, it has been repeatedly urged that modern language has, besides its special values in helping to discover pupil abilities, something to offer in rounding out the picture of our international society that may well be developed before senior-high-school years.

The junior-high-school years accordingly have much to recommend them as a proper time to begin study of foreign language. Also the development of elementary language skills in junior high school leaves time in senior high school for subjects requiring more reflective power.

Chennan Li in a Yale doctoral thesis found, however, that pupils who started foreign-language study in the eighth and ninth grades did not generally secure as high median scores on an objective test that he administered to them as those who started in the tenth and eleventh grades.[3] E. L. Thorndike had previously, after experimentation, made a similar discovery.

[1] Josette Spink, *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (April, 1924), pp. 417–422; Florence M. Baker, *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Feb., 1929), pp. 364–375; Elizabeth Franz, *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Dec., 1926), pp. 178–179; S. C. Goding, *F.R.*, Vol. 7 (Feb., 1934), pp. 226–228; H. F. Farrère, *F. R.*, Vol. 6 (Dec., 1932), pp. 114–122; J. Hagopian, *F.R.*, Vol. 9 (May, 1936), pp. 501–503.

[2] C. O. Davis, *Junior High School*, p. 161 (World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York; 1924).

[3] Quoted by V. A. C. Henmon, *Achievement Tests in Modern Languages*, pp. 322–329 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

We are convinced that the gain made in fifty, one hundred, or five hundred hours of study of French, German, Spanish, or Italian by a group from any age from twenty to forty will be greater than the gain made by a group aged eight, or ten, or twelve, of equal native capacity.[1]

It seems pretty well established that while at the end of two years of study there are no appreciable differences in the maturity of the fundamental reading habits of a student who begins his study in high school and those of one who begins it in college, the maturity level achieved by two years of study in the grades at junior-high-school level is typically considerably lower than that attained in senior high school or college.

M. M. Frazer and C. C. Crawford showed also that college and other adult students scored higher than junior-high-school pupils[2] in grammar, vocabulary, and comprehension. They attribute this better performance to the greater power of concentration typically possessed by the adult, and to the greater feeling of responsibility he brings to his study. A study made by G. B. Miner[3] showed that chronological maturity had little influence on learning after the second year of high school. J. H. Finch and O. R. Floyd found that chronological age is relatively unimportant for achievement in modern language.[4] F. D. Cheydleur showed by experiment that achievement among adults studying outside the regular high schools and colleges was higher, as indicated by norms on standardized tests, than that of high-school and college students for similar periods of learning.[5] While these

[1] *Adult Learning* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1928).

[2] "A Comparison of Adults with Junior High School Students as to Progress in Learning Spanish," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 16 (April, 1931), pp. 40–42.

[3] "The Measurement of Achievement in Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 14 (Dec., 1931), pp. 457–482.

[4] "Relation of Chronological Age to Achievement in the Study of French," *J.Ed.P.*, Vol. 25 (Jan., 1935), pp. 52–58.

[5] "An Experiment in Adult Learning of French, etc.," *J.Ed.Res.*, Vol. 26 (Jan., 1935), pp. 259–275.

experiments are not convincing warrant of the advisability of giving up modern-language teaching in junior high school, they do show that adult learning of modern language is entirely effective. This discovery may accelerate the increase in numbers of adult students of language and the consequent development of teaching methods especially suited to their needs.

Facts show that the largest modern-language enrollments are in the ninth and tenth grades of school. Certainly at the high-school level modern-language courses should be freely available to all students. For here is the last opportunity of great numbers of pupils to round out their education or to develop a background for advanced specialized study or for college. J. Greenberg [1] has observed though that senior-high-school language courses should be planned so as to adapt themselves to those in junior high school, not the reverse. The senior high schools should always be ready to take pupils on from whatever point they have been able to reach in junior high school. They should not arbitrarily set up a program to suit their own preferences and leave entrants from junior high school to get along in it as best they can.

THE PROGRAM OF LANGUAGE STUDY

The one-year foreign-language course should be abolished, according to the recommendation of the Study, "unless under exceptional circumstances." [2] The one-year course for adolescents is not productive enough to warrant its existence and since adolescents have not the need to continue the study privately, it is pedagogically unsound. If under certain circumstances, however, a one-year course seems necessary in high school, it should be either a general language course, or perhaps better, an introductory study carried on in English on the civilization of France, Germany, Italy, Spain, or South America. Such a course might be planned to give about twelve weeks, or sixty class periods, to

[1] *F.R.*, Vol. 5 (March, 1939), pp. 377–386. [2] Coleman, *op. cit.*, p. 232.

the study of each of three of these civilizations. In this time an appreciation of some worth-while features of these civilizations can be obtained in either junior or senior high school. To be sure, the material used for such a junior-high-school course would have to be strictly limited and much visual instruction employed, with ample use of maps, illustrative material, and radio where possible.

For adults a one-year language course is advisable only if it is kept strictly a reading course.

The two-year course, beginning with elementary instruction and progressing to the development of at least usable reading skill and reasonable knowledge of the foreign culture, is the generally accepted minimum foreign-language offering. It has been found that about 85 per cent of students electing a modern language take it for two years or less. Certainly no student should study a language for less than two years; and although thorough knowledge of one language is more valuable than a smattering of more than one, and a two-year school course is hardly sufficient for developing mastery, two years is the American norm for all but those with a very special interest or need.

The desirability of providing special courses, with emphases, methods, or content adapted to fit the needs and capacities of special groups, is discussed elsewhere in this chapter and in Chapter Eleven. Marshall's report [1] indicates that a "number of cities recognized the need of two courses, one for those who begin in the ninth grade and the other for those who begin earlier and have been instructed by the informal conversational method."

There has recently been discussion of dropping elementary modern-language courses from college entirely since they could be, and actually are, largely being given in the high schools. In this case the student's time in college would be used for more

[1] H. C. Marshall, "What Should Be the Nature of Foreign Language Study in the Junior High School?" *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. 4, pp. 212–213 (Ohio State University; 1925).

advanced studies. However, Hills [1] has shown that a majority do not favor this innovation. In the case of German the plan is, for the present at least, out of the question since German is taught very little in the regular high school.

SELECTION OF STUDENTS

Another administrative problem of prime importance in connection with modern-language teaching is the question of who shall be admitted to the courses. In settling this problem the needs for foreign-language training and pupil aptitude for such training will be the determining factors.

The value of the learnings of the foreign-language course for even pupils who will put them to no directly practical use suggests the wisdom of encouraging all pupils with the requisite capacity to study at least one foreign language. The personal and social benefits accruing from knowledge of, or ability to make direct contacts with, a foreign civilization are great for all persons. Language ability will of course serve a further purpose for that considerable number of students who will make direct use of it in some field of advanced study or in earning a living. In both instances the need is indicated for offering on the proper grade level courses to all pupils who want them.

Dean H. L. Smith [2] cites the opinion of a considerable number of fellow deans that in the colleges language should be required for students in scientific and classical courses and for others especially interested in art, music, literature, social customs, and institutions, and for those who are economically independent and can afford a cultural education. For all others it should be elective.

Wise direction concerning choice of language courses must be offered by the modern-language department. Teachers should

[1] E. C. Hills, "Should Beginners' Courses in French, German, Spanish, and Italian Be Given in College?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Nov., 1928), pp. 101–111.

[2] "The Place of Modern Language Study in an Integrated Secondary School Program," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1936), pp. 196–203.

be urged not to try to induce pupils to take their particular language course without careful regard for the background and needs that the pupil will bring to the course. Student advisers should recommend from among the available language courses on the basis of a sound knowledge of individual needs and capacities. Propaganda for particular courses should never be allowed to interfere with sound professional service in this regard.

A guidance teacher, if one is available, should assist in this fitting of pupils into suitable courses. Where the language teacher must make the decisions himself, he must consider the pupil's plans, both academic and vocational.

The fact that the gifted child typically learns a foreign language readily is likely to tempt the language teacher to believe that this is his specialty. He should, however, resist the consequent temptation to try to make a professor of modern language of him, for his greatest usefulness may well lie in some realm entirely outside the field of teaching. The foreign language must always be considered in its proper perspective as a tool that may serve in any of a number of possible ways.

Determination of the aptitude of pupils electing language courses is a matter demanding very serious consideration if the mortality in language courses is to be reduced. It seems certain that proper restrictions on election of courses on the basis of ability will make an important contribution in this respect. The serious harm done pupils by permitting them to be placed in positions where failure is inevitable cannot be overestimated. Sound educational philosophy accordingly demands that success in his undertakings be possible for the student. The conclusion is obvious that pupils incapable of success in the foreign-language course should not be permitted to undertake it. J. Greenberg [1] states that 26 per cent of pupils applying for entrance to foreign-language courses in New York City junior high schools are ex-

[1] J. Greenberg, "Problems in Foreign Languages in Junior High Schools," *F.R.*, Vol. 2 (March, 1929), pp. 377–386.

cluded from them — presumably on the basis of their discovered incapacities.

The Study has failed to find evidence of any such quality as a special linguistic ability, although its findings do not by any means indicate that such an ability does not exist. There are, however, available tests that indicate with considerable accuracy the pupil's likelihood of success in language study. If such a test indicates marked incapacity of a pupil for language study, he should be dissuaded from undertaking it. It is not, however, wise to depend entirely on the results of such a test in deciding whether or not to admit a pupil to a language class. Applications for permission to study a foreign language should probably be decided in a conference of teachers of foreign languages, of English, and of the social studies, the school librarian, and the school nurse on the basis of all pertinent data. In the experience of the writer such a plan would reveal that study of foreign languages is inappropriate for at least 8 per cent even in a highly selected group, and probably considerably more of the students in a normal group.

We need not here go into the origin of language-aptitude tests. The writer devised the first one for modern languages. This was published as a Predetermination Test by the United States Bureau of Education in 1918. It tested all four recognized language skills and employed Esperanto as the medium of testing. This test is now out of print but its original form may be found in *The Modern Language Journal* for October, 1918. This first attempt at prognosis testing was followed by Wilkins' Prognosis Test.[1]

Unfortunately it soon became evident that neither of these gave by itself an accurate prognosis. Van Tassel[2] showed, however,

[1] Published by World Book Company, 1920. See also V. A. C. Henmon, *Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

[2] R. J. Van Tassel, "The Measurement of Aptitude for Achievement in Foreign Language Study," in Henmon's *Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, pp. 175–182 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

that when used along with Form C of the Thorndike Word Knowledge Test,[1] the Dodd Artificial Language Test,[2] and the Terman Group Test of Mental Ability,[3] the Handschin Predetermination Test gave a reasonably trustworthy indication of ability to master a foreign language. Van Tassel [4] found that the Dodd Artificial Language Test had a higher correlation — .453 — with actual pupil performance in language study than any other prognostic test.

Sister Virgil [5] found prognosis tests of only limited predictive value. Results on her own German Prognosis Test as administered to German classes at the University of Minnesota yielded correlations of only .464 to .239 with the Columbia Research Bureau German Test given these same pupils at the end of a course, although the Iowa Language Aptitude Test yielded a correlation of .952 with scores on the achievement tests.

The Iowa Foreign Language Aptitude Test [6] consists of a ten-minute test of English grammar, a twelve-minute test in Esperanto, a ten-minute test in Esperanto grammar, and a thirteen-minute test in translation. By a correlation of scores on chance halves of the test, the reliability of this test was found to be .94. This coefficient was not corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula, which would undoubtedly have reduced it somewhat. After three years of use, correlations of .61 and .63 with semester marks and an achievement test were obtained on the scores of two hundred students of French. Tests of achievement at the end of six weeks of study proved a more reliable forecast than this

[1] Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

[2] In the American Council Psychological Examination (26 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.).

[3] World Book Company, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York.

[4] Henmon, *op. cit.*

[5] "Prognosis in German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Feb., 1936), pp. 275–287.

[6] See Henmon, *op. cit.*, pp. 25 ff. The test by G. D. Stoddard and G. E. Van der Beke is distributed by the Extension Division of the University of Iowa, Iowa City.

of the final total performance on an entire semester's work. Results on tests given at the end of the first six weeks of the course correlated .83 with semester marks.

More recent tests of probable achievement in language study are the Luria-Orleans Modern Language Prognosis Test[1] for determining probable success in French, Spanish, or Italian, and the Barry Prognostic Test[2] for Spanish only. The Symonds Modern Foreign-Language Prognosis Test[3] measures ability in English inflection, translation from English into Esperanto, translation from Esperanto, and English-Esperanto word study.

The use of the Symonds prognosis test by H. D. Richardson[4] yielded a correlation of .64 $\pm$ .046 with first-semester grades. He considers this test valuable for selecting "good risks" in modern-language study. He believes that supplementing its use with that of mental tests — the Terman tests were used in his study — adds nothing to its predictive value. Success in a modern language, he concludes, seems to a considerable degree to be the result of special aptitudes not measurable by a mental test.

Sister Virgil found that results on the Symonds test correlated to a significantly high degree with those on the Columbia Research Bureau German Test, Form A.[5]

B. C. Friedel reviewed seven prognostic tests and found that none of them had solved the problem of predicting individual success in modern-language study.[6]

W. V. Kaulfers summarized the results of prognostic testing as

[1] World Book Company; 1931.

[2] Described by G. S. Rice in Henmon, *op. cit.*, pp. 77–88.

[3] P. M. Symonds in Henmon, *op. cit.*, pp. 91–126. Now published in Forms A and B by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York.

[4] "Discovering Aptitude for the Modern Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Dec., 1933), pp. 160–170.

[5] "Prognosis in German," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Feb., 1936), pp. 275–287.

[6] "A Study in Foreign Language Prognosis," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Feb., 1927), pp. 298–314.

reported in fifty-one different studies up to 1931 and found evidence of a wide variation in accuracy of prediction as measured by various criteria. He reported the results of all this study as indicating that no reliable instruments existed for predicting individual success or failure in language study.[1]

If their teaching methods are adequate, modern-language teachers should find the progress of the pupils in proportion to their intelligence. It is consequently well for teachers to have some measure of the learning capacity of students before admitting them to their courses. But all these facts notwithstanding, the value of a general intelligence test in predicting language ability has been demonstrated to be by itself not great.[2] V. A. C. Henmon [3] has shown that the correlation between intelligence quotient and results of objective tests of pupils' actual achievement in language study is only .19 to .36.

L. C. Seibert and E. R. Goddard [4] found by a study made at Goucher College that the correlation between intelligence-test scores and first-semester grades was very low, lower at the second year of language study than at the third, as indicated below:

	Two-Year Group	Three-Year Group
1928–1929	.13	.34
1929–1930	.55	.42
1930–1931	.43	.48

Hopkins [5] concludes that while the intelligence test gives a better measure of prediction of success in the modern languages than the Wilkins Prognosis Test, the correlation with actual achievement is too low to be of any real significance.

[1] "The Present Status of Prognosis in Foreign Languages," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 39 (Oct., 1931), pp. 585–596.

[2] W. V. Kaulfers, "The Intelligence Factor in Foreign Language Achievement," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 39 (Jan., 1931), pp. 42–48.

[3] *Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages*, p. 9 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

[4] "The Use of Achievement Tests in Sectioning Students," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Feb., 1934), pp. 289–298.

[5] In Henmon, *op. cit.*, pp. 72 ff.

Various abilities and interests that have been demonstrated in the pupil's previous school experience may well be considered evidence of his qualifications for language study. Those students who have developed an active interest in and aptitude for the study of words and their ways in English are likely to have ability in foreign-language study.

J. Shaffer showed experimentally that deficiency or strength in English was accompanied by corresponding deficiency or strength in foreign languages.[1] Those students whose record of free reading in English shows a preference for literature with setting remote in time and place or written from a background and point of view of foreign or historic culture will likely have a lively interest in and a capacity for foreign-language study. Those students too who have developed a strong interest in and an aptitude for the investigation and discussion of social problems are likely to find exploration of similar problems in the experience of foreign peoples effective motivation and justification for study of a foreign language.

An attempt has been made in various school systems to set up exploratory courses in language that will serve as a testing ground for pupil ability and interest. These are given in the various languages, in which case they are short enough so that a student may take several of them in one year, or a general exploratory course in combined languages is given. On the basis of performance in these exploratory courses the pupil is advised in his choice of courses. Students showing an incapacity for language study are then diverted from it and those evincing a marked aptitude or interest are helped to choose the courses that will provide for their fullest development.

W. V. Kaulfers has concluded, however, after long experience with the general language course, that while it does offer definite help as a means of guiding pupil choice from among the language

[1] "The Modern Language Student vs. English Grammar," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Nov., 1929), pp. 95–102.

courses offered, it has failed as a means for prognosticating success or failure in language study in general.[1]

Grades made in previous foreign-language courses may always be considered evidence of the likelihood of success or failure in another. Particularly is this method likely to be used by college authorities in passing on applications for admission to their foreign-language courses. It was found by Odell,[2] however, that the average of high-school marks in all subjects is a more significant prognosis of success in language study in college than the pupil's I.Q. or his high-school marks in the particular language studied.

Administrators may well be warned by these facts that no one device for forecasting ability can be accepted as infallible.

SECTIONING OF PUPILS

The desirability of making language classes as homogeneous as possible in capacity and readiness for the material of the course is widely although not unanimously admitted. For the two-year course segregation wherever possible into strong and weak sections and the definition of different aims for the various ability levels represented is recommended. The question is one that should be carefully considered by every language department and by every teacher assigned to whatever special groupings of pupils may be decided on.

Results of segregation of pupils on the basis of learning abilities

[1] "Prognostic Value of the General Language Course," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 27 (Nov., 1928), pp. 662–664; "Cultural Orientation in the Lower-Division Foreign Languages," *H.*, Vol. 18 (Dec., 1935), pp. 265–274; "Forecasting Efficiency of Grades in Exploratory Language," *California Quarterly of Secondary Education*, Vol. 9 (June, 1934), pp. 333–338; "An Analysis and Evaluation of General Language, The Language-Arts Survey Course," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pp. 83–92.

[2] C. W. Odell, "Predicting the Scholastic Success of College Freshmen," *I.B.*, Vol. 25, No. 37 (1927), pp. 7–54. See also C. C. Brigham, "The Prognosis of College Work in French," in Henmon, *op. cit.*, pp. 59–64.

remained doubtful in an experiment at the Lawrenceville School. The same conclusions were reached from a study made at the William Penn High School for Girls in Philadelphia.[1] An experiment at the Montclair, New Jersey, High School, however, showed a distinct difference between the achievement of segregated and non-segregated groups in favor of the segregated classes. This superiority was most marked in reading achievement.[2] Julia Bramlage found that segregation of ability levels in several Spanish classes resulted in superiority of achievement for the segregated groups.[3] Most favorable results of segregation were, however, reported by J. B. Tharp from the University of Illinois.[4] He found that ability grouping of beginning classes benefits the medium- and high-ability groups but not the low-level students. He finds also that sectioning of pupils into strong and weak classes on the basis of placement tests and resectioning on the basis of achievement test grades after four or six weeks is warranted.

Since segregation of ability groups is in most cases impossible even where it is desired, the fact is of special interest that at least two studies have found mixed groups entirely satisfactory. It is, however, important that teaching methods provide adequately for the differences in abilities within the class. Methods for doing this are discussed in Chapters Four and Eleven.

Wherever classes represent different ability levels, there should be the possibility of promotion from a weak section to a strong section upon proof of ability. In the weak sections the work may be strictly restricted to reading, with the use of some direct-

[1] V. A. C. Henmon, *Achievement Tests in Modern Foreign Languages*, pp. 331 ff. (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 330 ff.

[3] "Factors Affecting Student Progress in Language in the Senior High School," *H.*, Vol. 13 (Oct., 1930), pp. 331–340.

[4] "Sectioning Romance Classes at the University of Illinois," in *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 367–432 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

method devices for question-and-answer exercises in which the answers are to be in the foreign language or English as desired.

There should also be an understanding in the school that in weak sections grades will be lower than in strong sections. If the same grade distribution is used in the strong and the weak sections, there will be injustice insofar as a poor but industrious student in a weak section might get as good a grade as a good student in a strong section. Students may even try to get into the weak sections so that they can get good grades more cheaply than they could get them in the strong sections.

Methods of determining the proper classification of pupils should be carefully considered. A study by B. P. Steeves [1] reported that ability grouping of college students was accomplished through the following devices: In 56 per cent of the cases placement tests were used; in 50 per cent, high-school records; in 64 per cent, ability as shown in other college work; in 16 per cent, intelligence tests; in 6 per cent, personal conferences or other contacts.

COLLEGE PLACEMENT TESTS

We note therefore that various studies fully justify the use of placement tests to determine the proper assignment of college students to classes and courses.

We should note that achievement tests can be used for placement with all college entrants offering one or more units of French, German, and Spanish upon entrance, and that the instruments named above are available and have proved their validity for the purpose. For first entrants the Barry Prognosis Test and the Symonds Foreign Language Aptitude Test have definite value and are being perfected.

The need for some other gauge of the ability of beginning college students is indicated by reports on the danger of classifying

[1] *Status of Modern Foreign Languages in the American High School and College* (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Washington; 1928).

students according to high-school credits.[1] In the fall of 1928 performance on the American Council Alpha French Test showed that students with two, four, six, and eight semesters of French were 17, 7, 14, and 3 points respectively below national percentile norms. Similar conditions were found to exist among the first entrants in the fall of 1930. Students were accordingly assigned to college language courses on the basis of test scores rather than of high-school credits. Cheydleur summarizes the results as follows: "Of the 1774 cases held stationary — that is, considered normal in accordance with their previous records — all but 6 per cent passed the various class requirements in the subject at the end of the first semester, 81 per cent of them earning A's, B's, and C's. Of the 100 cases retarded, about 29 per cent failed to pass." The scheme has therefore worked in 96 per cent of the advanced cases.

J. F. Matheus reports the following evidences of the probable effectiveness of attempts to forecast readiness for college language courses. Correlation of aptitude test scores with semester grades was .414 $\pm$ .054. The coefficient of correlation between psychological-test scores and semester grades was found to be .417 $\pm$ .061; that between psychological test scores and aptitude test scores was .664 $\pm$ .038. These results were obtained by testing 103 college freshmen, 51 of them students of French, 36 of Spanish, 16 of German. The tests used were the George Washington University Series Language Aptitude Test and the Psychological Examination for High School Graduates and College Freshmen of the American Council on Education.[2]

F. D. Cheydleur has written concerning the value of testing for determining placement of students in college language classes.

[1] F. D. Cheydleur, "The Results and Significance of Placement and Attainment Examinations in Foreign Languages at the University of Wisconsin, A Pioneer Step in Modern Education, 1930–1933," *F.R.*, Vol. 7 (April, 1934), pp. 363–378.

[2] "Correlation between Psychological Test Scores, Language Aptitude Test Scores, and Semester Grades," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pp. 104–106.

He reports the use of Forms A and B of the American Council Alpha French, German, and Spanish tests for placement purposes at the University of Wisconsin in the years 1928 through 1930. Comparison of semester grades with performance on these tests indicates that the tests may be considered to have some definite value as placement tests.[1]

M. L. Stevenson [2] reported that use of placement tests at the University of Pittsburgh revealed wide overlapping and deviation from national norms and greatly varying achievement among those presenting the same number of units of preparatory training. Placement according to scores on the Columbia Research Bureau French, German, and Spanish tests proved far superior and more valid than placing according to the number of units of language offered.

S. A. Stoudemire reports that placement tests administered over a period of seven years at the University of North Carolina have more than justified themselves, although he does not state what tests were used.[3]

L. C. Seibert and E. R. Goddard [4] have reported a three-year experiment at Goucher College that shows correlation of results on objective tests with grades given pupils at the end of a semester. This study shows that objective tests of knowledge and ability have some value in guiding the placement of students who enter college with previous language training. The correlation between test scores and actual achievement was, however, found to be "greater for high scores than for low ones." It was also generally higher with third-year language students than with second-year ones, as the following figures indicate.

[1] "The Use of Placement Tests in Modern Languages at the University of Wisconsin," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Jan., 1931), pp. 262–280.

[2] "Use of Modern Language Placement Tests at the University of Pittsburgh," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (April, 1934), pp. 433–450.

[3] "Placement Tests in Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1937), pp. 593–596.

[4] "The Use of Achievement Tests in Sectioning Students," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Feb., 1934), pp. 289–298.

	Two-Year Group	Three-Year Group
1928–1929	.45	.73
1929–1930	.68	.67
1930–1931	.66	.70

CLASS SIZE

The size of classes must be given careful consideration by administrative officials. F. D. Cheydleur found that classes containing from nine to thirteen did 6 per cent better than classes of twenty-four to twenty-nine students the first semester and 2.6 per cent better at the end of the year.[1] E. Hudelson made a study of classes in a number of subjects and concluded that large classes are desirable in some subjects but not in others.[2] In a second study he maintains that (1) bright pupils can get better justice in large classes; (2) dull pupils are not so likely to get by without working in them; (3) large classes encourage pupil initiative; (4) the proportion of failures is no larger in large than in small classes.[3]

Twenty-five to thirty pupils is generally considered a maximum for modern-language reading classes, however. Where speaking is the goal of the course, the enrollment should be considerably smaller than this.

ORDER OF STUDYING LANGUAGES

The question of a possible advantage to be gained from the order in which languages are studied when more than one appears in the student's program is also important.

[1] "Mortality of Modern Language Students: Its Causes and Prevention," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Nov., 1932), pp. 104–136. Note especially pp. 133–134.

[2] *Class Size at the College Level* (University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis; 1928). See also "Class Size Standards at the College Level," *N.C.A.Q.*, Vol. 6 (March, 1932), pp. 371–381; and "Class-Size Conditions and Trends at the College Level," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 30 (July 20, 1929), pp. 90–102.

[3] "Class Size — Opinions, Evidence and Policies — in Secondary Schools," *North Central Association Quarterly*, Vol. 4 (Sept., 1929), pp. 196–208.

It has long been held that Latin forms the best possible introduction to the study of the Romance languages. Among those who believe that a Romance language might better serve as an introduction to Latin than vice versa are C. Gilmore,[1] H. G. Doyle,[2] W. D. Allen,[3] and H. J. Phillips.[4] W. R. Price holds a brief in two articles for German as the first foreign language to be studied, on the ground that it brings an improvement in English.[5]

E. J. Swift [6] found a decided advantage to the study of Spanish from antecedent study of Latin and German. The Classical Investigation showed that there is a carry-over effect from the study of Latin to that of French. This finding Cheydleur confirmed through a significant experiment.[7] G. A. Rice's important study [8] further corroborates this conclusion and adds that the carry-over from Latin to French is not more advantageous than that from Spanish to French. Also he states more broadly that knowledge of one foreign language does help considerably in the acquisition of a second foreign language. However, he found that study of a foreign language for only one year possesses very little transfer value in the acquisition of a second foreign language.

[1] "Latin and the Modern Languages," *H.*, Vol. 7 (Feb., 1924), pp. 12–20.

[2] "The Romance Languages as an Introduction to Latin," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 23 (Jan. 9, 1926), pp. 47–49.

[3] "Latin via a Romance Language," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 23 (April 3, 1926), p. 434.

[4] "Spanish as a Foundation for the Study of Latin," *H.*, Vol. 8 (May, 1925), pp. 178–183.

[5] "Romance Languages as an Introduction to Latin," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 23 (Feb. 13, 1926), pp. 208–209. Also "General Linguistics," *Educational Review*, Vol. 63 (May, 1922), pp. 430–433.

[6] *The Mind in the Making*, pp. 244–254 (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York; 1908).

[7] F. D. Cheydleur, "Results and Significance of the New Type Modern Language Tests," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (April, 1928), pp. 513–531. See especially p. 526.

[8] *Studies in Modern Language Teaching*, pp. 462–467 (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930).

STANDARDS OF ACHIEVEMENT

Standards of achievement for the various courses offered in modern languages must also be determined under the direction of the centralized administrative authority. Specific standards for word and idiom study and other phases of the work of each course should be defined. Selection of text and test materials on the basis of these achievement standards will then be made by the department head, or much better, by the department acting as a group or by a committee representing it.

Junior- and senior-high-school courses are quite generally planned in such a way as to give one high-school credit the value of two junior-high-school credits.[1] Likewise two years of high-school language study is considered about the equivalent of one year of college work. Two of the three studies on which this conclusion rests employed standardized tests in their research; the third used a questionnaire. M. M. Frazer and C. C. Crawford concluded as a result of their experiments in testing high-school and college students that the achievement of the college students was greater and that it derived from a superior power of concentration and a more highly developed sense of responsibility.[2] G. B. Miner [3] does not find so great a disparity between the scores of high-school and college students. He concludes, however, that the general equating of two years of high-school and one year of college work is warranted. Returns to the questionnaire of P. B. Steeves [4] indicated that 57 out of 62 universities

[1] H. C. Marshall, "What Should Be the Nature of Foreign Language Study in the Junior High School?" *Educational Research Bulletin*, Vol. 4 (Ohio State University; 1925), pp. 210–214.

[2] "A Comparison of Adults with Junior High School Students as to Progress in Learning Spanish," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 16 (April, 1931), pp. 40–42. Cf. also Buswell's findings reported on pages 73–74.

[3] "The Measurement of Achievement in Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 14 (Dec., 1931), pp. 457–482.

[4] *Status of Modern Foreign Languages in the American High School and College* (unpublished doctor's dissertation, University of Washington; 1928).

consider the equation of one year of college work and two years of high school warranted. These facts should provide guidance to persons responsible for directing the policies of modern-language departments in either high school or college.

The Gosling Committee made a study of the articulation of high-school with college courses and on the basis of their findings made a significant recommendation to the North Central Association; namely, that it "repeat its invitation to the colleges included within the North Central territory to revise their terms of admission in such manner as to permit students to qualify for entrance on the basis of units of work — eleven or twelve in number — accomplished in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades of the secondary school." This, if carried out, would not credit toward entrance into college classes work done in the ninth grade, the last year of junior high school in a six-three-three organization or the first year of the regular high school in an eight-four set-up.

SUPERVISION OF TEACHING

One of the major responsibilities of administrative offices is of course the general oversight of classroom procedure. The extent to which such supervision is undertaken and the form it takes depends on many circumstances. College departments will naturally have a very different kind of supervision from that given in high school, and large, well-organized school systems will provide a very different type of supervision from that in small schools.

On the subject of supervision of classroom teaching by department heads or supervisors there is available from questionnaires considerable expression of opinions of those directly concerned.[1]

[1] C. J. Anderson, A. S. Barr, and M. C. Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work* (D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York; 1925); W. L. Uhl, *The Supervision of Secondary Subjects* (D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York; 1929); J. M. Hughes & E. O. Melby, *Supervision of Instruction in the High School* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois;

The consensus of this opinion is that there should be visitation of classes by responsible heads or supervisors. Teachers favor the unannounced visit, which in practice is the rule. Opinion is divided on the matter of the length of supervisory visits. How frequent the visits should be evidently depends on the individual situation. It is agreed that there is most need of visitation in the case of new or inexperienced teachers and that a conference between supervisor and teacher after the visit is absolutely necessary.

If supervisory visits are to prove effective, the person making them must have a well-considered plan of observation. In the first place, he must have clearly in mind the things he will watch for and he must have a sympathetic understanding of what the teacher is aiming at in the recitation. If there are standardized lesson plans for the week's work, the supervisor will have a copy of these. He will then watch to see how matters of class routine are being handled. He will decide if enough is being accomplished in the class period. Young and inexperienced teachers are commonly weak in this respect, since they are often handicapped by lack of knowledge of their subject and by lack of teaching technique. They need suggestions of ways to increase production without overworking the student or falling into superficiality. The supervisor will also be alert to observe whether the teacher is devoting the proper amount of time to the various phases of the day's work. Here again inexperienced teachers are likely to err. They will often fail to notice how unbalanced the hour's work is becoming in respect to emphasis and attention to its various phases. The supervisor will observe whether individual pupil needs, capacities, and background are being taken into consideration in developing the lesson. He will observe if learning

1930); E. Collins, *Supervisory Guidance of Teachers in Secondary Schools* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1934); "Current Problems of Supervisors," *National Education Association Yearbook*, Vol. 8, pp. 3 242; "Scientific Method in Supervision," *Second Yearbook of the National Conference of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction*, pp. 12 307 (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; 1929).

situations are sought out or created to provide stimulation and motivation for pupil effort.

The supervisor will make his visits unobtrusive, preferably sitting at the back of the room and taking as inconspicuously as possible any notes he may feel it necessary for him to take. He will never interrupt the teacher, knowing that his opportunity for expression comes in the later conference with the teacher, nor will he base his final opinion of a teacher's work on a single visit, although he will always stay long enough to get a representative sampling of the work done in the period. The supervisor's conference with the teacher should not follow the visit immediately but after both have had time to think over the work observed and to appraise it individually. The supervisor knows that suggestions must be made on the basis of objectives and methods agreed upon by the department and not on his own subjective opinion. With these data and the weekly lesson plans before supervisor and teacher as they confer, the conference will not be an airing of purely personal reactions but an analysis of the teacher's practice in the light of predetermined principles and norms. This should be a rich opportunity for the supervisor to show the teacher ways of improving his teaching, no matter how generally satisfactory it may be, and to imbue the teacher with his own fine enthusiasm for real teaching.

There have been supervisors who conceived of their function as dictatorial and coercive. Their power of rating and of recommending salary changes was used as a whip to compel obedience. This method of supervision does not succeed, however, in welding a staff into an instrument that functions harmoniously and enthusiastically to carry out an effective teaching program. Cooperation and not dictation must be the soul of supervision.

Supervision must be, however, more than sympathetic and well-meaning. It must be systematic, not sporadic and fitful, in such matters as classroom visits and post-visit conferences. It must be scientific and not subjective in its judgments. Super-

visors and other administrative officers must know that there are questions pertaining to modern-language teaching which cannot be decided on the basis of criteria of supervision in general or of educational psychology but must be referred to special studies of language aptitude and achievement testing, of word and idiom and syntax frequencies, etc. Only a specialized knowledge of the foreign literature or philology in question will serve here. In such cases the wise supervisor will not decree; he will turn his departmental meetings into scholarly discussion groups. He will suggest readings in the field and will have these discussed in staff meetings. He will also make readily available to teachers attractive books and other materials of instruction to serve their own development and growth in the subject matter of their courses.

Illustrative lessons should at times be prepared and presented to the teachers of any department. It is not necessary that the supervisor or department head teach all these lessons himself. In every staff there should be some who are masters in some one technique or phase of teaching. Such a member may very well teach a model lesson demonstrating his special skill. Teachers should be encouraged to perfect themselves each in some phase of teaching in this way. Model lessons should be taught, not at random, nor *en bloc*, but when new teachers are to be inducted into a school or a system, when a new procedure is to be introduced, or when one or more teachers have shown themselves unable to achieve what has been agreed upon as a desirable objective or to use certain techniques that have been recommended. Teachers will welcome a demonstration of procedures in which they feel uncertain.[1]

[1] Further discussion of the functions and methods of supervisions may be found in the following: "The Principal as Supervisor," *National Education Association Research Bulletin*, Vol. 7, No. 5 (Nov., 1929); J. A. and J. H. Clemont, *Coöperative Supervision in Grades Seven to Twelve* (D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York; 1930); E. O. Melby, *A Critical Study of Existing Organization and Administration of Supervision* (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois; 1929); J. M. Hughes and E. O. Melby, *Super-*

The remaining functions of the department head as listed by Deffenbaugh and noted on pages 330 ff. have probably been sufficiently covered by the foregoing discussion to need no further comment.

THE INTEGRATED CURRICULUM

The socially integrated curriculum used in the Eight-Year Experiment of the Progressive Education Association has demonstrated the feasibility and the value of integration of school subject matter and method with the student's growing personality. Language departments must take cognizance of this fact for the organization of classes and they must see that all teachers thoroughly understand any such plan that may be put in operation.

Modern-language teaching is in many instances attaining a new richness and importance through integration with other subjects of the curriculum, although the degrees to which, and the methods by which, this integration is achieved vary widely in different schools. Thirty schools in the United States obtained a release for their students from the conventional requirements for entrance to more than two hundred fifty colleges and then undertook a program of thoroughgoing integration of subject matter. Children rather than school subjects became the point of departure.

vision of Instruction in High School (Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois; 1930); C. J. Anderson, H. S. Barr, and M. C. Bush, *Visiting the Teacher at Work* (D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., New York; 1925); D. F. Twitchell, "An Objective Measure in Supervision," *J.Ed.Res.*, Vol. 19 (Feb., 1929), pp. 128–143; F. B. Knight, "Possibilities of Objective Technique in Supervision," *J.Ed.Res.*, Vol. 16 (June, 1927), pp. 1–5; A. B. Alberty and V. T. Thayer, *Supervision in Secondary Schools* (D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1931); H. W. Nutt, *Current Problems in Supervision of Instruction* (Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond, Virginia; 1928); *Supervision and the Creative Teacher*, Fifth Year-book of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association; Xavier Higgins, *Reducing the Variability of Supervisors' Judgment, An Experimental Study* (Johns Hopkins University Press; 1936); A. S. Barr, "An Evaluation of Items to Observe in Classroom Supervision," *J.Ed.Res.*, Vol. 18 (June, 1928), pp. 53–65; A. S. Barr, "Some Problems Ahead in the Scientific Study of Classroom Supervision," *Ed.M.*, Vol. 7 (Nov., 1927), pp. 64–70.

The pupil's live interests rather than blocks of subject matter were made the core of units of work and study. In these units subject matter was developed only as it served a vital and conscious need for the student.

Foreign languages would obviously not need to suffer in such a program where teachers were equipped to make their value apparent to pupils and to give proper instruction in them. The ways in which modern languages would be drawn into the pupil's study program in a thoroughly integrated curriculum are indicated in the Eight-Year Experiment.

In this connection the administrator may exert a significant influence, keeping the perspective of his teachers wide enough to encompass the whole educational scheme rather than one narrow field of subject matter.

Although P. B. Dietrich, a Traveling Fellow of the Evaluation Staff of the Eight-Year Experiment, reported that "teachers of foreign languages have been slow to join this movement of integration or have actively resisted it," [1] there are more recent signs of an active interest on their part in integrating their subject matter with other courses of the curriculum and with the vital natural interest of the pupils. Dean H. L. Smith believes modern language has a place in any integrated curriculum and quotes a considerable number of fellow deans on its value in such a program.[2]

If considered fundamentally, each language is seen not only to have much in common with every other language but also with other means of communication and with studies that deal with the efforts of people to establish satisfying relationships with one another. As these possible bonds with other fields of school subject matter are kept clearly in the minds of teachers and pupils, new applications and new meanings of the content of the language

[1] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (April, 1936), page 417.

[2] "The Place of Modern Language Study in an Integrated Secondary School Program," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1936), pp. 196 f.

course will be steadily revealed and the course will take on new richness and new usefulness for the pupil. The alliance of modern languages with the other arts is suggested as well as with the social studies and the natural sciences.

Roberts and Kaulfers have developed the idea that foreign language can integrate with English, social science, art, and science, and that the language arts if rightly taught will contribute richly to the development of economic security and social integration in the world.[1]

S. H. Glenn [2] believes that study of the social background of the authors read in the modern-language class leads to effective integration of the language work with other fields of subject matter. T. H. Glenn reports successful integration with the study of English by which the students' English grammar and vocabulary were improved.[3]

The sympathetic and alert language teacher will discover almost as many different interests in his class as there are members. He will find that other departments of the school can, and will be willing to, help in the development of these. Teachers of history, art, music, science, and geography will coöperate willingly and with considerable effectiveness in the development of whatever special phases of their subject may be relevant to the foreign-language study.

Dr. Dietrich has suggested numerous specific points of contact between the modern-language course and other fields of subject matter,[4] and has indicated natural limitations to the development

[1] "Integrating the Language Arts for Social Purposes," *Educa.*, Vol. 55 (Dec., 1935), pp. 239–245. Cf. also the same authors' "Integration in the Language Arts," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 43 (Dec., 1935), pp. 737–744.

[2] "Reform in Modern Language Teaching," *F.R.*, Vol. 10 (Dec., 1936), pp. 93–101.

[3] "Integration of English with Foreign Languages," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 20 (Feb.–May, 1935), pp. 17–22.

[4] "Suggested Problems on Integration," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Nov., 1936), pp. 116–122.

of these and practical means of realizing as many of them as are attainable. The specific bonds that he has suggested between the foreign languages and the other subjects of the curriculum are summarized in the following outline:

1. What are the possible relationships of foreign-language study with other parts of the curriculum?

(*a*) With English: natural extension of reading habits and interests; study of words and their relationships.
(*b*) With social science: source and current material in other languages; travel; applying the social experience of other nations to our own problems.
(*c*) With natural science: reading scientific reports in other languages. Possible only with advanced students.
(*d*) With the visual arts: illustrations of the life and art of the foreign people.
(*e*) With music: folksongs, opera, biographies of musicians.

2. What limitations exist in the possibility of integrating foreign-language study with other parts of the curriculum?

(*a*) Pupils in integrated courses are likely to have widely different backgrounds in foreign languages.
(*b*) The ability to read original materials of value in other courses is rarely attained in high school.
(*c*) Continuous practice in reading an orderly sequence of carefully prepared materials is thought to be necessary to develop skill in reading foreign languages. Close integration would probably require fortuitous and irregular study of difficult materials.
(*d*) The intransigeance of foreign-language teachers.
(*e*) College requirements and examinations.

3. What practicable measures to promote integration may be adopted by foreign-language teachers?

(*a*) Assist in integrated courses of the "cultural epoch" type.
(*b*) Develop enriched foreign-language courses of the "major interest" variety.
(*c*) Stimulate and assist free reading in appropriate entertaining materials in foreign languages as well as in English as a part of the program of the school library.

(*d*) Expect and encourage free reading in foreign languages as a regular part of the English program in the upper grades. In discussing literary problems use examples drawn from foreign literature.
(*e*) Assist the study of words and their relationships in English classes.
(*f*) Cultivate intelligent readiness for foreign-language study by assisting seventh- and eighth-grade teachers in developing interests in words, literature, history and travel (probably not formal grammar at this stage).
(*g*) Reduce teaching load by a more careful selection of students; combine classes, and use additional time to assist the work of other courses.

To achieve an effective integration of language study with other work of the school, it is of course essential that the administration appreciate the need for coöperation among all departments of the school and for the provision of time for teacher conferences with individual students. For a sound program of integration develops only when barriers between subjects and school departments are broken down and when each teacher has a sympathetic understanding of the interests and needs of his individual pupils. Provision for the assistance of a modern-language teacher in all integrated courses where language might be made of service will prove effective wherever it can be arranged.

Laura Johnson, who heads the work in French in the University of Wisconsin High School, one of the thirty experimental schools involved in the Eight-Year Experiment of the Progressive Education Association, is after trial heartily convinced of the value of integration but realizes the need for compromise between the aims common to the old teaching in water-tight compartments and those possible in an integrated system: [1]

If I concentrate on the technical aspects of the language which must form the basis of all further study, how can I find time to correlate my work with that of other departments? Or, if I reach out, as I should,

[1] "Opportunities for Correlation in Foreign Language Study," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1937), pp. 315–322.

beyond the technical limitations of language study, how can I find time to teach the fundamentals? Like most dilemmas, it has no final and ultimate answer, but involves a reasonable compromise between the two extremes. Without ever forgetting that our first responsibility is to teach our students to read and understand, to pronounce and to spell, if not actually to speak and write the foreign language, we must realize that it is the cultural values of the language that justify the study of its technical aspects. It is only by demonstrating constantly that language study has significance beyond the purely arbitrary demands of teachers, courses of study, and university requirements that we can and should maintain our presence in the secondary-school curriculum. Many of the activities suggested are carried out by individual pupils outside of class and therefore do not monopolize valuable class time. Many of them justify the time and attention that they require, because they do supply a valid motivating force.

Such a point of view as this would exert a decided influence on the determining of many points of administrative policy as well as on classroom method.

J. Shaffer indicates the interrelation of skills and knowledge in different languages by a study showing that deficiency or strength in English was accompanied by a corresponding deficiency or strength in a foreign language.[1] The development of skills that would be applied to all language study was accordingly thought possible and desirable.

The general language course, earlier referred to as a prognostic device, not only serves the end of detecting pupils' capacities for language study but might also provide effective means of integrating all branches of language study. It is designed to lay a solid foundation for later work in any language by developing the principles and terminology common to those most generally taught. H. D. Roberts and W. V. Kaulfers [2] in discussion of this plan define linguistic expression as a distinct art with a psychology

[1] "Modern Language Student vs. English Grammar," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Nov., 1929), pp. 95–102.

[2] "Integration in the Language Arts," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 43 (Dec., 1935), pp. 737–744.

and terminology that are applicable to all its branches. These then become the province of a course designed to develop basic language skills and understanding of the fundamental laws of verbal expression, attainments that are widely believed to stimulate ease and depth in learning languages.

Theresa Wehr collected data about the extent to which the general language course is given and found that of nineteen states that had established it, three had later given it up.[1] Various other studies have been made of the number and character of such courses in the United States.[2]

Lilly Lindquist, who has had wide experience in administering the general language course, writes of it as follows: [3] "It is, first, a survey course in the fundamental principles of language structure and development, considered historically and comparatively. Second, it is a course in English and its foreign elements. Third, it is a gateway to the foreign language." The aims she gives as follows:

"First, to develop an appreciation of language in general and of English in particular; and second, to correlate with all activities of secondary education (1) by making the pupils language-conscious; (2) by improving their use of English; (3) by helping them weigh words and meanings; (4) by enriching their vocabulary, thereby tend-

[1] "Course in General Language," *Classical Journal*, Vol. 26 (Dec., 1930), pp. 194–206.

[2] Dorothy Snedaker — in "Pre-Language Courses," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Jan., 1928), pp. 295–298 — reports that courses in Oklahoma City consist of five weeks of introduction to French and four to Spanish. Elizabeth Brezeale — in "General Language — A Course for Language Misfits," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Jan., 1929), pp. 316–318 — reports on general language courses in Philadelphia. Lilly Lindquist — in "A General Language Course as a Pre-requisite to Foreign Language Study," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Jan., 1930), pp. 285–289 — reports on Detroit. See also E. C. Cline, "Some Problems Relating to Exploratory Courses," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 38 (March, 1930), pp. 206–210, and Helen M. Eddy, *Instruction in Foreign Languages*, Bulletin No. 17 of the United States Office of Education, 1932.

[3] "General Language in High School," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1937), pp. 577–581.

ing to give them increased ability to think and to express thought, as well as to interpret thought; (5) by familiarizing them with some of the social experiences and achievements of mankind from the earliest times to the present; (6) by providing them with some information which will serve as a background for further study in world history, in science, in art, in language, and in literature; (7) by developing attitudes and habits of behavior which will tend to make the pupils more worthy members of the social group to which they belong; (8) by arousing in them an interest in other nations, and other languages, thereby broadening the pupils' outlook, and helping them to understand better different people and their problems; (9) by giving the pupils an actual tryout in two or three foreign languages so that they may know what foreign-language study involves, and may choose accordingly; (10) by inspiring them with a desire for reading and travel.

It is the general consensus of opinion that a course designed to provide basic linguistic training would emphasize the development of ability to study any foreign language rather than a knowledge of the grammatical peculiarities of any one language.

Kaulfers has expressed the view, after long experience with the general language course, that it has undoubted orientation value. He would, however, substitute for it an introduction to the various foreign languages. This plan has been, and is, in practice in various localities. W. M. Taylor and J. B. Tharp call such a course a language-arts survey course. In their survey of this field [1] they summarize the latest facts and give an excellent bibliography of periodical articles and textbooks for the course, with synopses of their contents.

Correlation of work in two or more languages has in certain instances proved of value. Particularly has the integration of English with the foreign-language course proved effective. T. H. Glenn, as noted on page 362, reports successful integration of modern-language teaching with English to the distinct improve-

[1] "An Analysis and Evaluation of General Language: The Language-Arts Survey Course," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pp. 83–91.

ment of English vocabulary and grammar.[1] Hilda Roetzman[2] discusses historical and geographical, as well as linguistic, topics that may be used to tie the German and English courses together.

SUPERVISED STUDY

Administrative officers who would develop modern-language teaching to its fullest possible effectiveness must give consideration to the idea of a supervised-study program for their schools. For only as pupils learn how to study can they make progress in studying a foreign language.

Kilzer states[3] on the basis of research studies in the subject that the value of supervised study is seldom questioned; that its use is spreading rapidly; that some accrediting and standardizing agencies insist that junior and senior high schools have definite programs for training pupils in correct study habits; that high schools in all parts of the United States have supervised study and that very few have discontinued it after a trial. He gives statistics to show that the results of supervised study are almost universally good in the opinions of teachers administering it as well as in controlled experiments testing its effectiveness. The need for supervised study is also made evident by studies showing that 25 per cent of the students in the schools surveyed had no definite time for study, that 50 per cent had no separate room for home study, and that various other conditions antagonistic to the development of good study habits existed.

What supervised study may mean in any situation depends on the conception of it in the minds of administrative officers and

[1] "Integration of English with Foreign Languages," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 22 (Feb.–May, 1935), pp. 17–22.

[2] "Correlation of Foreign Language Work in High School," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1928), pp. 143–149.

[3] L. R. Kilzer, *Supervised Study*, pp. 15 ff. (The Professional and Technical Press, New York; 1931). This late book on the subject contains data on various plans as well as on the conduct of supervised study. Along with other books and articles given at the end of this chapter, it will form a sufficient guide for the teacher who wishes to inform himself further.

teachers and the efficiency with which it is carried through. Giving directions how to study is not supervised study, no matter how sound such directions may be. Nor will printing or mimeographing such directions and pasting them in students' books — as has been very properly and wisely done — do the work. To be truly effective, supervised study must be undertaken as a special function of the school.

"Supervised study is the procedure that aims to make each pupil self-reliant and efficient in all his learning activities by giving him encouragement, wise guidance and necessary assistance." [1] This definition may serve the purpose of this discussion.

Numerous schemes have been proposed for supervised study. The "divided-period" plan, the commonest of all, divides the school day into periods of sixty, seventy, or ninety minutes each, half of each period to be given to study and half to review, recitation, and assignment. The "daily extra period" plan provides that pupils who fall below a certain standard are held for an extra period at the end of the day under the care of a single teacher who will give them special help in improving their study habits or in the subject matter that has troubled them. This is sometimes called the "review group" or "delayed group" plan. The "weekly supervised study" plan devotes four hours of class time each week to regular work and one to supervised study. The "conference" plan is similar to the "extra study period" plan, but is used to aid both strong and weak students. The "opportunity period" plan is a voluntary study-hour plan. The "alternate period" plan gives every second day to supervised study. The "Batavia," "study coach," or "unassigned teacher," plan calls for extra teachers. There are numerous other plans and modifications of plans that have been successfully tried out in various schools.

All these arrangements for supervised study were designed to take the place of the old "study hall" plan in which all students not

[1] *Ibid.*, p. 2.

engaged in recitation were congregated in a hall and superintended by one teacher who was then considered to be having a "free" period. The most he was expected to do in this hour was to police the group. It has now been generally agreed that this time is not only largely wasted but it positively encourages bad study habits. If the school as a whole has not developed a more satisfactory method of pupils' study, the modern-language department should institute some scheme for giving its students systematic guidance in the development of proper habits of study as especially applied to its field of learning. This again is a matter for those directly concerned with the administrative functions of the department.

The aim of the supervised-study program is to lead pupils on their way to habits of independence in their work. The teacher will therefore watch closely as the student works but interrupt as little as possible, and then only when he sees that a student needs help in correcting a wrong habit or in preventing the development of a new one. Then he must diagnose the student's difficulties, clear them up, and leave him to try again for himself.

The teacher gets to know his students better through supervised study. He knows beforehand that there are certain types: (1) the bright self-reliant; (2) the bright but lazy, sometimes even "smart," who "never open a book all semester" but are not above poaching on another when occasion offers; (3) the plodding fair; (4) the dull and sometimes timid. If the teacher is well trained and a real teacher, he knows that each type needs different treatment if the pupils are to be made into independent workers. The bright, self-reliant student is the teacher's best asset and should have a considerable part of his attention. The bright but lazy first of all need rigorous treatment to show them that facile mental reactions without knowledge are just a noisome nuisance. If such a student tries to exploit what another has worked up, his bluff must be called. Stiff tasks deflate him speedily. Given stiff competition and close grading, learning may now begin if he has

anything of value in him. The plodding student of fair ability has not only all our sympathy but our respect also. Many of this type later make the most valuable men and women. What they get, they get by real effort and so they develop moral qualities at the same time. They must be helped so that each obstacle can finally be overcome. Type 4, the dull, are misplaced in the language course, and if they cannot be removed must be helped to get what for them may be considered a respectable minimum of achievement.

The supervised-study period is the teacher's most valuable hour. If there are pupils who cannot do the work at all, here he finds it out and has them transferred early to some other subject in which they may have more ability. In supervised study is going on the real teaching that is the essence of the whole educational program.

A variety of supervised study that may prove very helpful in the language course can be provided by a teacher's apprentice, an older pupil who may be capable of giving this service. Such a helper, always on duty in the school library, may offer valuable assistance to pupils, first in the selection of reading materials, and then in the solution of reading difficulties that are beyond the pupil's power or by supervising the working out of practice exercises, talking over the content of the reading done, and stimulating thoughtful interpretations of this and applications of the ideas to other phases of life.

In college, supervised study may be developed in much the same way that it is on the lower levels. It is generally provided sporadically in the guise of laboratory supervision but is practically unknown as supervised study. There is as much need of it on this level as in high school, however. Many college students who have studied a foreign language in secondary school have had no supervised study, and those students who have had no modern language in secondary school are utterly innocent of any idea how to study a modern language.

Students between the ages of eighteen and twenty, those typical of the first two college years, should be able readily to understand

and to act upon directions how to study. Even bare directions may consequently be of value to them. Many college teachers are giving such directions, more or less expertly. It is, however, entirely feasible to set aside short portions of the hour for supervised study. This should be done early in the course, and later when special need arises.

It will result in better achievement, better acquaintance between teacher and student, and greater democracy in the classroom.

Problems for Study

1. Write a statement several pages in length for handing to a superintendent to whom you are applying for a position, explaining who, in your opinion, should study a modern language. Give all necessary data from placement and prognosis tests.
2. The superintendent might ask at what age you would have pupils start the modern language. Write out your answer, with references.
3. Make a summary of the most important problems of the supervisor and the most commonly used means of solving them.
4. Describe a learning situation in which integration of modern language with other subjects of the curriculum could well be practiced in one school that you know well, and construct a list of student readings that would be helpful to recommend in connection with the project, giving author, title, and precise pages to be read.
5. Write out what suggestions you would make in supervised study to a dull but willing student trying to get an effective recognitional knowledge of foreign verb forms and functions.
6. In how far are the objectives of the Study's possible list advisable in the average junior high school?
7. Map a three-year junior-high-school course in French, German, Spanish, or Italian, indicating texts and precise amounts by semesters.
8. Map a course in general language, indicating the class text and numerous texts for reference and collateral reading.
9. Map a course which divides the year between various modern languages and indicate the precise texts and amounts to be covered.
10. Plan a year course in French, German, Spanish, or Italian scientific reading, indicating the texts and method to be used.
11. Make an inclusive list of references containing the most recent data on vocational opportunities in modern languages.

Chapter Fourteen

Teacher Training

SCIENTIFIC interest in modern-language teaching in the United States was not notable until 1898, when the Committee of Twelve issued its report bearing the stamp of the educational theory and practices of its day. There was no stress on development of oral skill for practical use of the language, but reading was the chief aim. The method advocated was the old one of grammar study and translation by which the classical languages had long been taught. There was little or no special training required of prospective teachers ot the modern languages, any more than of those of any other subject in the curriculum. In good colleges teacher-training consisted in giving the candidates for teaching a thorough knowledge of the subject, in poorer institutions it consisted in developing minimum essentials of proficiency in subject matter.

The committee report did succeed, however, in arousing a widespread consciousness of certain serious needs for the improvement of language teaching, including better training of teachers. Public sentiment was stimulated by the report and considerable progress ensued.

By the end of the first decade of this century there had appeared a well-defined tendency toward a new philosophy and method of modern-language teaching that also exerted an inevitable influence on teacher training. Emphasis was gradually being shifted from grammatical knowledge to reading and oral skill and to understanding the foreign culture. At the same time there was developing a science of pedagogy based on psychological principles and pupil needs rather than on subject-matter specifications. The teaching of modern foreign languages accordingly underwent a considerable change before the World War. Under the influ-

ence of the direct method of teaching modern languages in Europe the first decade of this century saw a decided change in our theory as well as in our practice of teaching modern language.

The first step in study of a language came to be learning pronunciation, not grammar. A science of phonetics had developed in Europe and formed the cornerstone of the new teaching. Practical oral command of the language became an aim of teaching, as did a knowledge of the culture and the people it represented. These widespread innovations in aims and methods of teaching naturally involved a change in the plan of teacher-training. Special skills and knowledge for teachers were specified beyond those necessary for other students of language. To teach a language now required a knowledge and understanding of the people and the country associated with the language, oral facility in the language, special training in pedagogical methods and principles, and the use of the increasingly numerous materials of instruction.

We may note that decided changes for the better in the training of modern-language teachers had been made under the spur of the direct-method movement in France and Germany in the early years of this century. England followed later. In fact, no important study of modern-language teaching was published there until 1918.[1] While England was, therefore, tardy in reforming this teaching, she finally sensed its importance and undertook a thorough reform.

We may anticipate a later day here and note the following recommendation by an official panel made in 1934 to teacher-training institutions: (1) Prospective teachers should be prepared to pass an oral examination in the language they would teach; (2) they should have had a minimum of six months' residence among the people whose language they would teach; (3) time

[1] *Modern Studies, Being a Report of the Committee on the Position of Modern Languages in the Educational System of Great Britain* (His Majesty's Stationery Office, London; 1918).

spent on philological study should be reduced; (4) courses on the foreign culture should be given.[1]

EARLY IMPROVEMENTS IN TEACHER TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES

The first efforts directly aimed at improving the training of teachers in the United States were in the direction of establishing some uniformity of standards for certification of teachers in the public schools.

At the turn of the century the standards of the state departments of education were very uneven, even chaotic, the country over and very low in the poorer sections. The writer remembers candidates who were given positions to teach a modern language after having had but six weeks of training in it. The general course in the two- and three-year normal schools, with the barest minimum of instruction in students' special fields of subject matter, was generally considered adequate for the modern-language teachers as well as for teachers of other secondary-school subjects.

As the decades went on, however, normal schools became teachers colleges, education became more of a science, requirements for graduation from high school and colleges were raised, facilities in secondary schools were improving, and better teaching could be demanded. Standardizing agencies for secondary schools had begun to function, such as the College Entrance Examination Board, the Regents Examinations in New York State, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, and other college and university associations. Teachers had by now become active in attempts to regulate certification of teachers and some areas were able to do away with blanket certificates and to insist on a specified course of training for teachers before they might be certified. In other parts of the country, however, teachers were still being given positions without

[1] *Modern Language Teaching in Relation to World Citizenship* (League of Nations Union, 15 Grosvenor Crescent, London E C 4, 1935).

proper training. Here an emergency in a school was often reason enough for asking a teacher to teach French or German even if he had had no training whatsoever in it. The blanket certificate covered a multitude of sins. There was no real chance of improving these conditions unless they were generally known; so various interested persons undertook to make surveys of the whole situation and to make the results known throughout the country. The Study was the first agency to attempt such a project for the modern languages on a large scale.

It was the plan of the Study not to oppose the famous report of the Committee of Twelve but to make another of broader scope supplementing the earlier survey and bringing it up to date.

SURVEY OF TRAINING OFFERED LANGUAGE TEACHERS

Teacher-training was one of the first problems taken up by the Study. Hugh Stuart made the first survey of teacher-training in the United States.[1] Since the later work of Purin, which will be discussed later, includes Stuart's findings, they will not be described here.

It is of interest, however, to note at this point Stuart's report about the summer-language-school movement which was a significant element in the early evolution of teacher-training methods. This movement was started by Lambert Sauveur, a specialist in French, and G. Heness, a German. Their schools were held on various college campuses, East and West, from 1877 to 1899. Both these men were advocates of the "natural method" and practiced it in teaching teachers. While the practical results of their teaching had the endorsement of our best educators, the training that they offered gained little standing or respect in the academic world. The Committee of Ten of the National Education Association did not recommend training teachers in the

[1] *The Training of Modern Foreign Language Teachers for the Secondary School in the United States* (Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; 1927).

methods these teachers used. The Report of the Committee of Twelve of the Modern Language Association mentioned the "natural method" along with other methods of teaching modern languages, but recommended that teachers be trained along regular academic lines. Two years later the Study published C. M. Purin's extensive statistics covering this training.[1] These will be briefly summarized.

Purin's facts on teacher-training were supplied by the heads of 749 departments of modern foreign languages in colleges and universities of the United States. Since these departments train 70 per cent of all modern-language teachers for our schools, they were believed to be the best source of information concerning the training being given these teachers. Statistical returns from 23,000 public and private high schools were also included. The data showed that there were at the time of Purin's study over a million students of modern languages in public and private secondary schools, and 150,000 in the colleges and universities.

Thirty-six states of the Union still issued blanket certificates. Of all teachers of French reported, 13.6 per cent were men; of Spanish, 19.4 per cent; and of German, 29 per cent. The proportion of men to women modern-language teachers in public secondary schools was 1 to 5.2; in private secondary schools, 1 to 1.6. Salaries were better in the latter; therefore there were more men found there.

The average number of years of preparation required of German teachers was 6.1; of French teachers, 4.9; and of Spanish teachers, 3.9. Of all the modern-language teachers included in the survey 68 per cent had had training only in college, and somewhat fewer than 50 per cent of these had supplemented this training by summer courses; slightly over 20 per cent had done any graduate work. Of the 10,096 modern-language teachers in public high schools 7691 had the bachelor's degree, 1077 had the master's, and

[1] C. M. Purin, *The Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929).

86 had the doctor's. The generally expressed opinion was that it was not advisable for two- and three-year normal schools to attempt training teachers for secondary-school positions. Approximately one third of the teachers reported had had less than three years' experience, a fact of great significance in view of the generally accepted belief that it takes at least three years of experience to develop a professional attitude in any field of activity.

Of the 10,096 modern-language teachers covered by the statistics, only a few over 30 per cent had visited the country whose language they taught. Only 7.5 per cent of those in public secondary schools had spent a year or more in the country whose language they taught.

The following subjects were found being taken as a teaching minor by students whose major work was in preparation for teaching a modern language: English, 412 times; history, 382 times; Latin, 291 times; a second modern language, 233 times.

The findings of more recent studies are also of interest here.

O. L. Parker[1] furnishes the following statistics on requirements and offerings of modern language in teachers colleges: 128 schools offer French — average 3.1 years; 101 offer Latin — average 4.2 years; 71 offer Spanish — average 3.2 years; 46 offer German — average 2.4 years; 4 offer Greek — average 1.8 years; 2 offer Italian — average 1 year; 6 offer no language. Only 12 have a definite entrance requirement in modern language, each requiring two years. Only 55 have any foreign-language requirements for graduation. These range from one to four years. Eighty-five offer a major in foreign language.

Hugh Stuart[2] found a general requirement of fifteen hours of modern languages for the A.B. degree. Minnie Miller[3] gathered

[1] "A Survey of Foreign Language Courses Offered in Teachers Colleges in the United States," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (May, 1931), pp. 633–635.

[2] *Op. cit.*, p. 73.

[3] "Foreign Language Requirements for the A.B. Degree," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (March, 1930), pp. 442–448.

statistics from one hundred representative colleges and found varying requirements. It is difficult on the basis of her statistics to make a generalized statement but her findings regarding the language requirement for the A.B. degree, exclusive of high-school credits, seem to be somewhat higher than those found by Stuart.

J. B. Paul[1] reports on thirty-four teachers colleges chiefly situated in the Central West. There is no entrance requirement in foreign language in many of these schools. A few of them require from two to five units, which in some cases may be made up in the college. Language requirements for the Bachelor of Education degree are often none. Minors in foreign language are generally offered; in fewer cases majors are offered. Minors consist of from twelve hours up, majors of twenty hours up.

A study of teacher training in New Hampshire by C. S. Parker[2] shows that of 160 modern-language teachers only 32 per cent had been abroad, eight teachers had done any graduate work, five had a master's degree, and four had no academic degree of any kind.

E. B. deSauzé[3] has set up an extensive program for teacher-training in the language, literature, economics, civilization, and history of France.

G. P. Deyoe[4] gives statistics of language offerings for preparation of secondary-school teachers in forty-five normal schools and teachers colleges for the years 1902–1903, 1912–1913, 1922–1923, and 1932–1933. He shows an increase in the period covered of from 2 to 49 per cent in the number of schools teaching French.

[1] *Foreign Language Requirements for Admission and for Graduation from Thirty-four Representative Teachers Colleges* (Iowa State Teachers College, Ames, Iowa; 1935).

[2] "The Training of Language Teachers in the Secondary Schools of New Hampshire," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (March, 1935), pp. 401–424.

[3] "The Training of a Teacher of French," *Educational Outlook*, Vol. 6 (May, 1932), pp. 235–244.

[4] *Certain Trends in Curriculum Practices and Policies in State Normal Schools and Teachers Colleges* (Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; 1934).

The two percentages for German are correspondingly 10 and 16; for Latin they are 13 and 47.

Mary E. O'Meara[1] found that of 111 modern-language teachers only 14.4 per cent were men. French teachers had an average of 5.9 years of training; German teachers, 6 years; Spanish teachers, 3.5 years; Italian teachers, 1.2 years. Fifty-one per cent of the 111 teachers were college graduates; 38 per cent had done graduate work; 31 per cent had studied abroad; 27 per cent had less than three years of experience; 31 per cent taught French only. All together only 40 teachers in senior high schools and 3 in junior high schools taught only one language; 19 taught two; the total number of teaching combinations was 51.

J. E. Espinosa[2] finds preparation of secondary-school teachers of Spanish poor and suggests a national survey of requirements for teaching Spanish and of methods of selecting teachers. He also suggests establishing an accrediting bureau and giving more space to pedagogy in *Hispania.*

F. J. Kelly[3] points out the need of research on the undergraduate level for teachers in training.

W. B. Aspinwall[4] has given an outline of the teacher-training course at the State Teachers College in Worcester, Massachusetts, where the language requirement is three years for entrance and four in college, a total of twenty-four to thirty hours. He has also studied the question of the relative merits of native and foreign-born teachers. This question was much discussed years ago and was generally settled by the American practice of hiring Americans. The number of foreign-born teachers of language in this country is very small and they are found chiefly in colleges and

[1] *Modern Foreign Language Teaching in Rhode Island*, p. 109 (master's thesis, Brown University; 1934).

[2] "The Teacher of Spanish in the Present Order," *H.*, Vol. 17 (May, 1934), pp. 139–144.

[3] *The American Arts College* (The Macmillan Company, New York; 1925).

[4] "The Preparation of Teachers of French for Junior and Senior High Schools," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1937), pp. 556–562.

universities. Aspinwall's opinion is in favor of native American teachers for the following reasons: The foreigner lacks adequate knowledge of the American language; his pedagogical training is either inadequate or so different that it is inappropriate to the needs of his American students.

In spite of all this study, and considerable other in the specific field of teacher training, as well as the great body of research in the general subject of language teaching,[1] there is need for an extensive study of present demands on teachers and of the extent to which the training being offered them meets these demands. Since objectives, methods, materials, and outcomes of elementary instruction in modern languages have now been pretty generally agreed on, the time seems ripe for a more thoroughgoing study than has yet been made of what goes into training of teachers for giving this instruction. Such a study might be a joint task for the Modern Language Association and the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers.

PURIN'S RECOMMENDATIONS

The data furnished and the recommendations made in Purin's book are still the standard of reference on the subject of training modern-language teachers. Without more accurate information on present conditions than is now available, it will be impossible to determine with any degree of certainty to what extent Purin's recommendations have been carried out. It is of interest, however, to review these recommendations in the light of such knowledge of existing conditions as we now have.

1. Insofar as facilities permit, modern-foreign-language departments in the colleges of liberal arts and in teachers colleges should, together with the departments of education, organize curricula and courses specifically designed for the training of teachers of modern foreign languages.

This has been done to a degree but much closer coöperation between the language department and the department of educa-

[1] See summaries on pages 21 ff. of Chapter One.

tion, and in many cases revision of language courses, are at present called for. In most cases the course in methods of teaching modern languages is given by the language department; the department of education gives general courses in the principles of teaching, history of education, measurements, educational psychology, and observation and practice teaching. In numerous states about fifteen hours of "professional work" are required for certification of teachers. Where these professional credits are not specified, the candidate is free to choose from the education offerings. In nearly all instances, however, a certain minimum of practice teaching is required. In some states liberal-arts colleges are permitted to give this practice teaching; in others it may be given only by a teachers college.

2. The aim of these courses should be to give prospective teachers adequate training in the language, the literature, the history of the foreign civilization, and of the foreign language, and in education and psychology.

The training offered by the language department will rarely include education and psychology. The extent to which it provides the other types of training specified will be discussed in connection with other recommendations.

Training in education and psychology are, however, provided by the education department and are a generally accepted part of the course of the prospective teacher. The considerable number of hours of education required of candidates for the bachelor's degree in education and liberal-arts students who wish to acquire a certificate to teach have been much discussed and frequently opposed even in the highest places and by our most eminent educators — for instance, in the report of Committee Q of the American Association of University Professors. One could compile a great bibliography of this growing protest against the extensive education-course requirements. One point generally made is that only bachelors of education are in many states certificated to teach in the public high schools, and these students,

having covered a requirement of 25 to 30 hours of education — 20 to 25 per cent of their total academic requirement — have not had sufficient training in the subject matter they will teach. Although the median requirement in education for certification of teachers in 44 states has been shown to be but 17.45 hours,[1] there are much larger requirements in some. In many states the requirement is about fifteen hours of "professional work," the specific character of the work not fully prescribed.

In many instances, however, there is state regulation to the effect that no one can teach without having had observation and practice teaching, which in most cases can be furnished in the teachers college only. Against this ruling strenuous objection is being made, particularly by friends of the liberal-arts college, which in some states where the teachers-college forces are especially strong is not permitted to give this training. In other instances the liberal-arts colleges lack facilities for practice teaching even where state regulation would accept their offering in fulfillment of certificate requirements. College departments would frequently be glad, where this could be arranged, to have their students take fifteen hours of professional work, including practice teaching, in a teachers college and credit it toward their college degree; but the teachers colleges commonly lack practice-teaching facilities for more than their own students or they believe that such a plan does not insure sufficient training to teach. Various compromises for resolving this dilemma have been proposed but the matter requires further thoughtful consideration.

3. In order that their courses may be properly planned, students intending to teach a modern foreign language should be advised to announce this fact at the beginning of the sophomore year.

This suggestion is surely commendable, and is being carried out in the better institutions. Where it is not, the language depart-

[1] H. G. Acker and J. L. Manahan, *State Certification of Modern Language Teachers*. This unpublished manuscript may be consulted in the files of the Study.

ment needs but to refuse to admit candidates for teaching after a certain specified date. In defense of its own reputation and the quality of its product, the department must surely insist that a teacher in training in its field of subject matter be definitely in training for at least two years and that his entire course be generally outlined and supervised by the department.

4. Since in many schools teachers are required to teach more than one subject, candidates should be advised to prepare to teach at least two subjects. Placement bureaus should ascertain which subject combinations are in greatest demand in the secondary schools of their particular territory.

In the most progressive parts of the country there was early recognition of the need for thorough training in one subject and at least fair training in another. Since 1929 and the subsequent hard times, however, candidates have had to be prepared in three, and even more, subjects in order to be sure of fitting into the omnibus teaching positions in the secondary schools, with the consequence that requirements for a teaching minor are commonly as low as twelve hours or less of work in the subject matter.

The suggestion to placement bureaus is timely. Better bureaus are taking the matter seriously and are passing the gathered data on to student advisers and to students early enough to exert an influence on the shaping of courses.

5. For the major language, in addition to two years of high school work, not less than 30 semester hours should be required, of which approximately 16 hours should normally be devoted to the language and 14 hours to literature. For a teaching minor in a modern foreign language approximately 20 semester hours, following upon a two-year high-school course, should be required, of which 12 hours should normally be allotted to the language and 8 hours to courses in literature. An attempt should be made to measure the attainment of various skills on the part of prospective teachers by a more scientific and accurate method than merely by the completion of a certain number of semester hours of work.

This recommendation sets a proper standard. The division of time between language and literature study is reasonable. Measurement of the fundamental language skills is now possible through standardized tests. Similar tests for advanced work should be devised. The University of Wisconsin has taken a step in this direction, now administering one test for reading knowledge after about two years, and one for proficiency after about four years, of work.

We recognize, of course, that only the better-equipped colleges are able to offer regularly thirty hours of work beyond the elementary language course. Smaller departments may, however, institute a system of alternating courses, giving certain advanced courses in alternate years in order to provide a richer opportunity for major students. In this case the schedule for two or three years ahead must be announced so that candidates may arrange their courses properly, to provide for their thirty hours of credit from the fullest possible selection of offerings.

6. An adequate oral command of the language should be required of all major and all minor students in a modern foreign language who plan to teach the subject.

It may seem strange that when the chief stress in language courses is coming increasingly to be put on development of reading knowledge in the secondary schools, we should insist that teachers have oral ability. There are nevertheless many reasons why this requirement is essential even for those who will teach a course dedicated chiefly to reading. Various needs for conversation ability in such a course have already been indicated in discussion of teaching methods. Some schools and communities will also no doubt require that their students be trained to understand the foreign language when spoken, and such training makes oral skill on the part of the teacher imperative.

7. Whenever feasible, colleges should make arrangement to permit students who elect a major in a modern foreign language to study abroad

in their junior year under proper supervision and to receive academic credit in all subjects thus completed.

The merits of the Junior Year Abroad plan and the extent to which it is in practice have already been discussed. If the plan is to attain wider significance, it is essential that colleges must be in sympathy with it and be willing to accept the credits made abroad.

8. Extracurricular opportunities for practice in hearing and speaking the foreign language should be provided by language departments through the organization of French, German, and Spanish houses, language clubs, etc.

Discussion of the ideas contained in this recommendation and of the extent to which they have been acted upon can be found on pages 400 ff. and in Chapter Twelve.

9. A properly qualified representative of the modern-language department should be placed in charge of the training of its prospective teachers with respect to the subject-matter courses and should serve as a liaison officer with the department of education. His duties would be:

(*a*) To examine the academic history of candidates with a view to judging their fitness for specialization in a modern foreign language, and to test their progress at regular intervals.
(*b*) To advise candidates in the proper choice of courses.
(*c*) To give the course in the technique of teaching the subject and either to conduct personally or to keep in close touch with the work in observation and practice teaching.
(*d*) To be chiefly responsible for recommending the candidates for teaching positions, and to maintain close contact with the placement bureau.

This recommendation is being carried out more and more. That responsibility for teacher training must somehow be unified and centralized is coming to be generally recognized. The various departments in which a student takes courses cannot act independently if prospective teachers are to be given well-rounded training. Nor can members of even any one department function effectively in teacher training without centralized direc-

tion of this work. The department as a whole must set up rules and grant certain authority to an officer in charge of teacher training. Then all members of the department must be interested and helpful, not only in furnishing the best training possible but in helping to place candidates. The officer in charge of language training will communicate and coöperate with the training department of the school or department of education. This coöperation must be wholehearted if efficient work is to be done.

10. Each language department, together with the department of education, should make adequate provision for observation and practice teaching extending over at least one semester.

11. Courses in tests and measurements, psychology of high-school subjects, and the technique of teaching modern languages should be included among the courses in education required of teaching candidates, since these seem to bear an especially close relationship to problems involved in teaching modern foreign languages.

These suggestions have perhaps already been sufficiently discussed in connection with the first two recommendations listed.

12. Efforts should be made to induce educational officers to give up any form of certificate for secondary-school teachers that does not specify the subject or subjects that the candidate is qualified to teach.

Certainly this is a proper recommendation, but today state departments of education are showing a considerable tendency to decrease rather than to increase requirements. We wonder whether there are not possibilities for these state departments to achieve something by insisting, through their inspection of high schools, on a better division of subjects among the available teachers in a school. Very often personal preferences and supposed vested interests in certain studies bring about a most inefficient division of subjects. Besides, rather than assigning too many subjects to a teacher, why not urge that the school drop some of the subjects from the curriculum? Often only foolish pretension is the reason for the presence of a subject and not a real need for it among the students and the community. It does not seem

possible for state departments of education to dodge this responsibility or to plead impotence in the matter, or to justify what is going on in many schools. This is an important matter which must receive attention unless the schools are to go backward.

13. Graduation from a four-year college and the fulfillment of a major or minor requirement in a modern foreign language should be regarded as necessary to receive a license to teach that subject in a secondary school.

The first item in this recommendation is slowly coming to be the standard everywhere, as is the requirement of academic credit for major or minor work in the language to be taught. The inadequacy of these major and minor requirements is, however, responsible for the low standards evident in much of our teaching. The state departments do not always specify that twenty or thirty hours of credit shall comprise minor or major credit, as the Study proposes. A teaching major may be as low as fifteen hours even in schools belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, but many schools cannot even qualify for membership in this organization, as state departments permit the continuance of much lower standards. The requirement for teacher training in numerous states, therefore, does not even represent insurance of an adequate reading knowledge of the language to be taught.

14. To promote further the professional development of modern-language teachers in service, local school boards should seek through bonuses, salary increases, or leaves of absence, to encourage the teachers to attend summer courses or regular sessions at centers offering special opportunities for modern language work, and to travel and study abroad.

Sabbatical leave for teachers was reported in vogue in about 200 cities in 1928. Twenty-three per cent of 549 high schools reported to the Study that increases in salary were granted teachers for attending summer schools or for foreign sojourn. It is generally recognized that modern-language teachers are in a

class by themselves as to the necessity for foreign travel. In poor school systems, however, leaves and salary increases to encourage foreign travel are still to come.

15. Insofar as possible, modern-foreign-language instruction in high schools should be supervised and inspected by experts in foreign languages.

That supervision is desirable, no competent judge denies. It is, however, financially impossible for any but the largest cities to employ a full-time supervisor for language courses. Much in the way of supervision can, however, be accomplished by utilizing the part-time services of the best-equipped teacher in the system or by hiring a teacher specially trained in supervision who shall have supervision as part of his load.

Superintendents or department heads can also exercise much effective supervision through staff meetings of all modern-language teachers for technical discussion; through the use of standardized and other uniform tests administered regularly throughout the whole system; and by other devices aimed at coördinating and improving the quality of language instruction.

We are aware that school finances will not support a needed policy of thoroughgoing improvement in supervision at this time, but with some administrative initiative and thoughtful effort much can be accomplished in this direction without added expense.

THE COURSE IN METHODS OF TEACHING LANGUAGES

The content of the course in methods of teaching modern language is a matter of particular significance, as it is the one course given for professional teaching credit by modern-language departments in colleges and universities. What should this course contain?

Its first objective will be to prepare the student to teach by reviewing and enlarging his knowledge of, and skill in, the lan-

guage. It must develop in him a knowledge of (*a*) accidence for teaching purposes, including mnemonic aids, spatialized arrangements of all phenomena and short cuts to memorizing these; (*b*) vocabulary, word-formation, studies in derivation, antonyms, synonyms, review of frequency lists of words, idioms, and syntactical forms; (*c*) correspondences between English and French, German, Spanish, or Italian; and (*d*) a review of punctuation, syllabication, and applied phonetics. If the methods course is given on the graduate level, it should contain also a review of the phenomena of literary study.

Whether given as a graduate or undergraduate course, the course in methods should certainly also contain (*e*) an introduction to methodology, which will include the history of methods, the principles underlying them, and the best uses of each; the study of objectives on the basis of educational psychology and philosophy and in the light of conditions in the schools in which the candidate will teach; the study of methods and materials as applicable in these schools under these conditions; the testing of knowledge and skills through new-type and other unstandardized or standardized tests. There should also be a study of (*f*) bibliography, which should include a thorough survey of materials available for classroom instruction on the secondary level, the strong and weak points about these and the arrangement of their contents. This study should also include a survey of available realia and other visual materials and their best uses.[1] The student of methods should also be given some training in biblio-

[1] For bibliography for the teacher see p. 434 of the Appendix. Here we may call attention to several valuable lists in addition: Edith Johnson's "Reasons for the Study of Spanish," Hispania References, *H.*, Vol. 17 (May, 1934), pp. 155–157, in which are given about thirty titles under each of the captions, "Methods and Devices," and "The Preparation of the Teacher"; A. V. Shaw's "Suggestions for a Working Library for the Teacher of French," *Peabody Journal of Education*, Vol. 10 (Jan., 1933), pp. 245–251; C. Sturgis's "A Suggested Bibliography for Teachers of Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 13 (Feb., 1930), pp. 35–54.

graphical method. He should learn the form of listing bibliographical material as well as such sources of information as *The Reader's Guide*, *The Cumulative Book Index*, and *The United States Catalog* and the way to use these indexes for his purposes.

The methods course should also provide for adequate observation and practice teaching. Observation should preferably be done in secondary-school classes and with special attention to at least the following considerations: (*a*) aim in the lesson; (*b*) material taught; (*c*) method used; (*d*) how well or to what extent was the aim achieved and with what per cent of the students in the class? There should be a specified number of periods of observation in both first- and second-year classes. The student should be required to hand in a report on each class hour observed, indicating the hour, the teacher observed, and a critical analysis of the teaching.

The actual practice teaching afforded in the methods course for those who do not do their practice work in the school of education should be done partly in the methods-course class itself. This class may resolve itself into a first- or second-year language class and the candidate teaches it. He chooses or is assigned a subject to teach, works out a lesson plan, and hands it to the teacher beforehand for revision. Lessons may be on beginning pronunciation, any phenomenon of grammar — present of verbs, ordinal and cardinal numerals, personal pronouns, etc. — or reading. There should be a full development of the lesson including recitation by question and answer or whatever method is chosen, and development of the next day's assignment. Good teacher and pupil attitudes should be insisted on. This initial practice teaching before the methods-course class prepares the candidate for teaching an actual first- or second-year language class.

If it is possible, the actual practice teaching should be done in a high school; if not, a college language class may be divided into several sections and one of these turned over to each candidate for a specified number of days, under the supervision of the teacher.

The methods course should, of course, include a thorough test at the conclusion of each of its units. At the end of the semester a paper should be required, presenting a detailed plan for a modern-language course of two or more years in a secondary school. This should include a description of the school set-up for which the course is designed — of its students and facilities. Teaching objectives, methods, and materials should be outlined on the basis of this actual situation. The specific texts to be used and the amounts of subject matter to be covered by units or terms should be indicated. Original tests to be given should be written out in full. Standardized tests to be used should be indicated. The entire teaching plan should be so worked out that it might be handed to a superintendent to whom the candidate is applying for a position. It might also constitute an adequate guide for giving the course.

GRADUATE WORK FOR TEACHERS

Since four years of college preparation is now the rule for modern-language teachers, additional study by them should be done on the graduate level. The writer, as an executive officer of a graduate division, has known numerous teachers who continued to do undergraduate work after their graduation because they did not know better or because they were qualifying to teach an additional subject and therefore needed more credits. It is, however, in the line of progress for graduates to do graduate, not undergraduate, work unless for very special reasons.

The work for a master's degree should not represent a fifth year of college work but something qualitatively superior. The student has in college learned the methods of college study and now needs to learn more advanced techniques and to do independent work. He must learn not to lean on the instructor for things he can learn to do for himself. As a teacher he has assumed certain responsibility; he should also learn to assume responsibility in

attacking problems as a learner. He should now learn to find out authoritative sources for himself and study them on his own initiative. He must learn to discuss problems and to refer to reliable authority for a basis of solving them. Data should become for the graduate student what they normally are for mature persons — a means of solving problems rather than merely an accumulation of material to be learned for examination. The graduate student should also be taught to be critical of textbooks, to evaluate their data, to confirm the sources of their information, to follow out the reasoning by which the author reaches his conclusions.

Our conception of work for the master's degree is sorely in need of standardization. This degree has had a checkered history in the United States. Some decades ago it was granted even by first-class universities a certain time after graduation if the candidate had taught and had maintained a good moral character, and even today it is being granted very cheaply by certain colleges of doubtful standing. Many teachers are receiving these cheap degrees. *Caveat emptor*, let the buyer beware, is a warning that should apply to the purchasing of degrees as well as of more tangible commodities. A cheap degree gives little personal satisfaction and certainly boards of education and superintendents will not long remain ignorant of its true significance.

In choosing a graduate school, the teacher will in general do well to avoid his alma mater for the reason that he needs new pastures, new teachers, and new environment — if possible, a superior one.

Foot-loose students who are able to go on with graduate study immediately after getting their first college degree constitute a class by themselves. Most teaching candidates, however, start teaching at once after graduation. Their graduate work must generally be carried on in summer terms. A certain amount of graduate work may also be done in extension classes during the regular teaching term. Certainly not much should be so done,

although some universities are granting master's degrees entirely on the basis of work done in extension classes. Extension teaching suffers from being done after a day's work on the part of both professor and student, from lack of library and laboratory facilities, and from lack of ample class time — a two- or three-hour course being frequently taught in one evening session a week. Summer-term work on the other hand is to be recommended if there is time for a proper vacation between the end of the summer session and the opening of the teaching term.

Reputable graduate schools accept only students whose undergraduate record was B or better in a recognized college — one belonging to a state college association or other standardizing agency. Graduates from such colleges are usually admitted without condition. In most schools a student is admitted to candidacy for a master's degree only after having completed a considerable part of his requirement, passed a preliminary examination, and offered an acceptable plan of a thesis. In reputable graduate schools the student must furthermore maintain a B average in scholarship, must finish his work within five years, and in most schools must also write a thesis and take a final examination. The requirement in semester hours is usually thirty, including the credit given for the thesis. It is customary to carry twenty of these required hours of work in a major subject and ten of them in a related minor. In some schools, however, all work for an M.A. degree must be done in one department although certain courses in other departments may be specified to supplement it.

The modern-language teacher will naturally choose as his graduate major the language he teaches. The candidate for a master's degree in a modern language generally carries as a minor a second subject which he may be teaching, or he may take all his work in the language and literature of his specialty. For the candidate for the M.A. is generally a teacher who intends to remain in the schools as a teacher. Students who aspire to ad-

ministrative positions in the schools may choose education as their minor.

The candidate for the Ph.D. may also be preparing to teach, but it is quite likely that his field will be college teaching, along with which he will do research work in his subject. If he intends to make real scholarship in his chosen field his profession, he should choose for himself courses laying emphasis on research methods and techniques. The teacher who has but one year to spend on graduate work cannot afford to spend much time in this way on research, but should devote his time to courses in which the emphasis is on teaching problems. This student should be taught the scientific method somewhere along in his course, though, and should to this end be required to do at least some slight pieces of research and finally a thesis, in the preparation of which he will show whether he is able to do a piece of work according to accepted scientific method and to add at least a modicum of knowledge to what is known on his subject.

The emphasis in master's work for the teacher should, however, be on widening his knowledge of his teaching field and on getting some things indispensable to a teacher, especially methodology, measurements, a proper philosophy of education, and a knowledge of the bibliography of his branch of study.

If only twenty hours of work in the modern-language major are required of candidates for the master's degree, the emphasis in the courses should be on language, for it takes from fourteen to sixteen hours to get even a bare reading knowledge of a foreign language. The courses taken should not be highly specialized. General courses in language, literature, and civilization would be more adapted to the needs of the secondary-school teacher. There are, however, many problems in literary study that might well be chosen for special consideration by candidates for the master's degree and that might be made subjects for their theses. These subjects should be chosen for their capacity to yield knowledge of some practical use as well as to afford training in sys-

tematic methods of scholarly study. The chief works of some one important author may be read and an exposition of some kind made of his main ideas along social, cultural, economic, or literary lines. Or the lyrics of an author or of a period might be read and the motifs classified so that the chief interests and ideas or ideals of the period would be made apparent. Such tasks involve a close study of the content of each piece, which is of great practical value for the teacher in his teaching. Analysis of the motifs or ideas discovered may be carried out on the basis of historical or psychological principles to any degree of refinement desirable. Such study should be made to yield a knowledge of the foreign civilization and a broad background of general cultural information. Or the graduate student may inquire into the genesis of any literary work by a study of the author's letters, journal, conversations, or other first-hand contemporary sources.

It must always be remembered, however, that the primary concern of the master's degree for teachers should be training for teaching. Harvard University, sensing this, has instituted a course leading to the degree of Master of Arts in Teaching. This is administered by the Faculty of Arts and Sciences and the Faculty of Education. The course is open to graduates of approved colleges and scientific schools and was established "to unite scholarship with professsional understanding." It is further described in the university's advertising matter by the following statements: "The degree is awarded on achievement evidenced by examinations in the subject to be taught and in Education, and by an apprenticeship in teaching." "In general the standard for basic knowledge of the subject is that of the Divisional Examinations for the Bachelor's degree in Harvard College." "In education, a General Examination tests the candidate's knowledge and understanding in five fields: educational psychology, the measurement of individual growth and achievement, the historical and philosophical background of

educational policy in western nations, current issues in American secondary education, and general principles of teaching." "In general, state requirements for certification to teach are met by the programs of the A.M. in Teaching." "The degree Master of Education, awarded by the Graduate School of Education, continues as a degree for administrative and supervisory officers," etc. This course is interesting as an instance of close coöperation between the liberal-arts and education faculties and as an attempt to pave the way for regular college graduates to get proper training for teaching positions in one year of study.

There is a considerable body of literature on the subject of graduate study for the language teacher. Some of this repeats ideas that have been here developed, but as a matter of information it will be very briefly summarized nevertheless.

P. H. Churchman [1] thinks graduate schools should bear in mind the needs of the teacher of elementary classes and give a course on pronunciation, syntax, aims, method, and oral use of the language. Schools should, he thinks, differentiate in their offerings and teaching between the future research student and the teacher. Topics discussed in the teacher-training course at Clark University,[2] he adds, are the teacher and his books, aims, and methods; examinations and marking systems; textbooks; lesson plans; literature; collateral reading.

C. F. Sparkman [3] shows that although education as a college subject has bettered its status, modern languages are being taught less and less. The training of the prospective teacher has consequently become overbalanced in favor of pedagogy and weak in subject matter. He suggests remedies for this situation.

[1] "Training Courses for Modern Language Teachers," *Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. 30 (Dec., 1923), pp. 309–329.

[2] "Wanted: The Graduate School of Teacher-Training," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Oct., 1926), pp. 1–11.

[3] "The Educational Expert and the College Teacher of Modern Language," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 28 (Nov. 17, 1928), pp. 610–613.

C. F. Palfrey [1] studied the requirements for the master's degree in modern languages and deplores the unevenness of them among even the best universities. He contends that universities should differentiate between training for research and for teaching, and that the M.A. should be a teacher's degree rather than a researcher's. He does not object to a limited introduction to research methods, which should include the use and preparation of bibliographical material and the writing of a thesis — or at least of semester papers. But instead of more research than this he believes the candidate should be taught pronunciation, oral use of the language, writing, fine translation, *explication des textes*, syntax, *Kulturkunde*, and methods at the graduate level. Teacher training should be under the care of the language departments themselves. He says many candidates have turned to technical courses in education because they have not been able to get the right kind of pedagogical training in the modern-language departments.

A. W. Aron [2] offers pertinent suggestions about the linguistic requirements for the M.A. student. These he thinks should include phonetics, linguistic principles, and history of the language.

R. M. Hughes in his *A Study of the Graduate Schools of America* [3] asked forty men from various sections of the United States to rank the outstanding universities for their work in each of various subjects in the curriculum. This study yielded very interesting

[1] "The Master's Degree in Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (April, 1935), pp. 489–500. See also J. Warshaw's "Teachers' Courses in Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 5 (Jan., 1921), pp. 200–209; Mary Landon's "Plan of Graduate Study" (report of work for an M.A. degree earned at Teachers College, Columbia University, and at the Sorbonne), *F.R.*, Vol. 5 (Jan., 1932), pp. 181–195; H. Keniston's "The Role of the Graduate School in Training the Modern Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (Oct., 1922), pp. 1–4.

[2] "The Linguistic Background of the Modern Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (Nov., 1922), pp. 75–83.

[3] Miami University Publications; 1925.

data, although the ratings have significance for only a short period of time. C. H. Handschin did a similar survey in 1914 [1] for the narrower field of graduate courses designed for modern-language teachers. The plan here was a "Who's Who" of those giving graduate courses in modern language in forty-two of the leading universities. The degrees, titles of published works, and the courses given by each person were listed. Data were also tabulated to indicate the lines of work in which each school excelled, the number of instructors and graduate students, the extent of its library facilities, the number and money value of fellowships and scholarships available. The number of M.A. and Ph.D. degrees given each year during the five previous years were also tabulated. It would be of value to have a comparative study of present-day facilities for modern-language graduate facilities on either of these models suggested or a new one. In such a study should be data assembled on the special provisions being made for giving graduate training to teachers or prospective teachers.

It is difficult to evaluate the facilities of the various universities for giving such training. Many of the larger institutions, while having better facilities, have such great numbers of graduate students that the individual student can receive but little attention. Moreover, these institutions are often interested in research students predominantly. As T. R. Palfrey [2] has suggested, their modern-language departments will do well to look to their methods if they would retain the patronage of teachers in service.

It may be well to mention here those summer schools devoted entirely to the preparation of modern-language teachers in various parts of the United States, which through their faculties, dwelling arrangements, and social life seek to reproduce the atmosphere of the foreign country. A number of these schools are

[1] *The Facilities for Graduate Study in Modern Languages in the United States* (Miami University, Oxford, Ohio).

[2] *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (April, 1935), pp. 489–500.

doing excellent work and are authorized to grant the master's degree. They form the best substitute for foreign sojourn. Announcements and advertisements of these schools are found each year in the *Modern Language Journal*.

Teachers are in need of courses with well-thought-out objectives in terms of use for their particular needs and founded on an educational philosophy that will bear inspection and yield measurable results. We also need standards for objectives and content of graduate courses for teachers. What, for instance, should a student know who has had a three-hour course for a year in French, German, Spanish, or Italian literature of the nineteenth century? What should be the objectives, the materials used, and the best method of teaching such a course? Does not each professor who teaches such a course at present lay the stress on the authors and works of his own subjective choice and in the phases of works in which he personally is most interested? And does he not teach as he was taught, whereas there may be better methods? Here our particular question is which of the many phases of works that might be stressed are most valuable for the teacher in service in the secondary schools.

Another need is for standardized tests in French, German, Spanish, or Italian literature, language, or civilization usable in graduate courses. There are now no such tests whatever to measure knowledge of a foreign civilization, language, or literature on the graduate level. Perhaps there cannot be until the objectives of such study have been more systematically considered and set down than has as yet been done.

GROWTH OF THE TEACHER IN SERVICE

Training is never ended for the teacher whose heart is in his work. He well knows that there is for him no standing still, but only going forward or backward. So he plans his life in such a way that his out-of-school activities contribute in at least a considerable degree to his professional development. Not only

must his personal emotional and physical health be maintained, and his interest in his pupils kept eager and sympathetic, but he must maintain a live and many-sided interest in the subject he teaches. This he will do by keeping continually fresh and growing his knowledge of the language he teaches and of the people and country with which it is associated.

For the foreign-language teacher vacation pleasures may easily mean professional advancement. The most obvious of these is of course travel in regions where the language he teaches is spoken. For such trips the wise teacher will give himself thorough preparation, planning them long ahead and informing himself on conditions in the places he will visit and on their artistic and historical associations.

Ideally of course every foreign-language teacher will visit the country of his special interest, either planning a formal course of study there or merely a period of residence planned to provide a thorough acquaintance with the region.

The person planning sojourn of any extent in a foreign country with which he has no direct acquaintance will do well to give careful thought to the matter of expense before he starts. It is well for him to gather all pertinent information from persons who have had the experience of a foreign stay and so can give him sound advice on making contacts with citizens of the country and on planning his budget. Various articles written especially for the person considering study abroad contain suggestions concerning such practical matters as will prove of importance to the student in a foreign land.[1] The foreign-language journals also

[1] J. H. Nunemaker, "Advantages of Foreign Travel and Study to the Modern Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (April, 1927), pp. 411–415; S. H. Bush, "Travel for Teachers," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Feb., 1928), pp. 343–347; C. W. French, "A Successful Educational Experiment," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (March, 1936), pp. 343–346. Teachers should write also to the World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston, Massachusetts, and to railroad and travel bureaus. A list of addresses is given on page 446 of the Appendix.

every year advertise foreign tours and study opportunities and occasionally publish articles about them by persons who have participated in them.

The teacher with an earnest ambition to provide himself with opportunities for study or foreign travel in summer vacations or semesters on leave will find many ways of reducing the expenses of the trip. He will also want to look into the increasingly generous provisions for help in such plans that are being made by various sources.[1] Teachers interested in stipends available for study should write to the Institute of International Education for information.[2] It may here be stated that the grants offered are as a rule not sufficient to defray all the expenses of the student but must be supplemented from other available sources. Many universities offer the use of their facilities and a small salary to graduate students in return for certain services that leave much free time for research or study. Various scholarships and fellowships are also available for study in this country or abroad.

The teacher's continuing progress will, however, by no means depend entirely on the opportunities that come to him in vacations. Perhaps the greatest possible opportunity for growth is that he can work by himself in leisure hours throughout the teaching year.

If the teacher has a live and deep understanding of the civilization and language he teaches, class work will never be for him or his pupils mere translation or grammar study. Literature must come alive in his classroom. Characters in literature must be not mere shadow pictures but Frenchmen, Germans, Spaniards, Italians, who come alive and reveal new shades of feeling and thought and action. Such teaching can develop only from an enthusiastic and deep knowledge on the part of the teacher. He must also know the natural resources, industries, occupations, ways of living and thinking, of the regions and peoples he studies.

[1] See pages 388 ff. [2] 2 West Forty-fifth Street, New York.

The development of such knowledge can come only with continued and systematic study.

The teacher must have accessible the tools of learning. Ample reading and reference material will be of particular importance to him and should be the personal property of every language teacher who is interested in his professional growth. Extensive systematic and thoughtful reading and note-taking are essential parts of any plan of conscientious self-improvement. At least a foundation library treating of all the basic essentials of the literature, civilization, and language of the teacher's special field should be owned by him. Suggested lists of such books are given in the Appendix. The teacher should know that publishers and importers grant discounts to teachers so that he may make clear his claim to these in sending orders.

Publications of the associations of language teachers and other professional periodicals are also of great value to the teacher in service and should be owned, studied, and filed for further reference.

The teacher bent on self-instruction will neglect no opportunities to hear the language he teaches from radio programs and phonograph records. A well-chosen collection of records will prove a valuable asset. Addresses useful in making such a collection are also given in the Appendix.

The school will probably own literary, aural, and visual equipment that will be accessible to teachers, but the teacher will own for himself as much of this as he can and will make it his task to know of other available materials in public or college libraries that he may visit at least occasionally.

The teacher's plan of individual study will derive from a conscientious analysis of his own needs and a determination to remedy them. He may well ask himself such questions as those suggested here.

1. Do I need help in pronunciation? Am I teaching it correctly and effectively? If not, how can I improve my

ability? Have I made use of all the best phonograph records available for this purpose? Have I learned all I can from available books, even from the introductions in the beginners' texts?

2. Is my knowledge of grammar adequate? To test it, I will translate a considerable passage of good foreign text into English. Then I will lay aside the original and later retranslate the English back into the foreign language and compare this version with the original. I will correct my mistakes carefully and thoughtfully, speaking the matter aloud continuously as I do this and referring to a good grammar as necessary. This procedure I will repeat as frequently as necessary.
3. If I have the choice of texts for my classes, is my acquaintance with beginners' books and reading texts sufficient to enable me to choose the best for my particular set-up? If not, can I not make visits to a neighboring college collection, or a public library, to inspect materials and perhaps to borrow some for intensive study?
4. Is my knowledge of the foreign civilization adequate? If not, should I include more books on this subject in my borrowings and purchases?
5. Have I read the chief works of all the important authors represented in the books used in my classes? If not, this may provide a stimulus and a plan for my reading.
6. Am I gradually accumulating a card catalogue of notes on my reading, with ample bibliographical references that I may use in directing the reading of pupils?

The teacher who determines to improve his knowledge and skill constantly will make himself acquainted with persons, families, and communities in his vicinity who speak the foreign language he teaches. In a city of any size a search should disclose some of these, as well as churches and clubs in which the foreign language is used.

The teacher who would make continual progress will also take advantage of all possible opportunities for professional study and discussion with his colleagues. Every modern-language teacher should affiliate himself with a local, regional, or national language teachers' association. If a chapter of any of the national associations of teachers of foreign languages does not exist in his community, the teacher will serve himself, as well as others, by organizing a group and then getting into communication with the central headquarters of the association that is of particular interest to him. The names of all such associations are regularly printed on the inside front cover of the *Modern Language Journal*. Occasional meetings of the local group should then be supplemented by attendance at the annual meeting of the larger associations — state, regional, or national. The associations of French, German, Spanish, and Italian teachers meet annually with the National Federation of Modern Language Teachers, as well as holding conventions of their own.

For the teacher whose professional attitude is sound and his plan for continual growth wisely conceived and carried out, there will be little need for concern regarding administrative matters. These will be the concern of some properly designated authority. There is, however, likely to intrude into the experience of any teacher certain conflict with the administration under which he works. The system of organization under which he works may be distasteful to him; prescribed curriculum or methods he may not entirely approve; minor matters of administrative requirements may prove seriously irritating and disturbing. Occasionally too the administration may be seriously incompetent or worse.

How, amid such adverse winds, shall the teacher continue his scholarly efforts? For under such conditions mediocrity, or worse, settles down like a miasma on the school, and the young, impressionable teacher, who most needs stimulation, suffers most from it.

The teacher needs under such circumstances to be calm, to work faithfully, to cultivate coöperation with fellow teachers, to salvage moments, continually to have some valuable books lying close at hand, to take notes systematically, and to get the satisfactions of his life from wholesome contact and honest work with his students, to let his interest in his students stimulate him to various means of getting and keeping them interested, and so to create an atmosphere of pleasurable work in his own classes, and if he is wise, to keep his eye out for a job under a more congenial administration.

Problems for Study

1. Compile a bibliography of materials listed in the *Modern Language Journal* and other language-teaching periodicals in the past five years on the subject of training modern-language teachers. Classify the items by subjects and append a synopsis of contents to each.
2. Describe the content of a course in language methods that you are taking or have taken and suggest additions to or other revisions of it.
3. List, on the basis of your own experience, the qualities that you consider desirable in a teacher.
4. What subjects and what amounts, in percentages, of each should be required for the master's degree for teachers of high-school French, German, Spanish, or Italian?
5. Compile a bibliography on travel and study abroad for the modern-language teacher.

Appendix

A Six-Year Junior-High-School Course

The work outlined is planned by half-years. The work of the first two years is designed for seventh- and eighth-grade levels. The third-year course is suited for ninth grade or the first year of senior high school.

The primary aim of the course outlined is the development of reading ability; oral and written work are suggested where they may serve this aim. Knowledge and appreciation of the foreign civilization are the second objective of the course.

In order to give a representative sampling of material for the different languages, the first year's units are planned for the French course, the second year's for Spanish, the third for French, the fourth for German, the fifth for Spanish, and the sixth for Italian.

FIRST-YEAR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL FRENCH: FIRST HALF

Pronunciation. State differences between pronunciation of French and English. Drill on vowels and consonants in isolation and in words and phrases. See Chapter Five for procedures.

Grammar. Follow classroom text. Case, gender, number of common nouns. Present of common verbs and *être* and *avoir* in interrogative and assertative sentences. *A-t-il? Il-a.* Negative forms. Oral expression of series of actions of everyday life. Expressions of time of day. Divisions of time from the second to the year. Parts of the body and clothing, with conversations based on pictorial charts. Reading aloud in concert from text.

Reading. The text should contain ample reading, as reading ability is the chief aim. Twenty-five to thirty pages of silent reading.

Memory Work. Songs, proverbs, games.

Notebook Work. Classroom expressions. Dictation. Written work called for in text.

Study of the Civilization. Social life of the French. Lives of several great national heroes. Rounds and pictures. Read at least one book in English that will contribute to understanding the French culture.

FIRST-YEAR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL FRENCH: SECOND HALF

Pronunciation. Continue corrective exercises and give short drill on certain sounds whenever necessary.

GRAMMAR. Nouns and verbs continued. Adjectives, numbers, and possessives added as found in text. Increase the number of French expressions used in the classroom.

READING. Read 50 to 75 pages in class text. Question in French on reading assignment; require answers in English.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Dictation and any written work called for in class text. English words derived from French.

MEMORY WORK. Songs, proverbs, rounds, games, classroom phrases.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Industries of France, including farming. Outstanding heroes of French history. Read at least one book in English that contributes to an understanding of the French culture.

SECOND-YEAR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL SPANISH: FIRST HALF

PRONUNCIATION. Continue to correct faulty pronunciation and to drill for a few moments from time to time.

GRAMMAR. Review grammar of first year; take up adjectives, adverbs, personal pronouns, possessives, and comparison of adjectives and adverbs.

READING. Read about 75 pages of class text. Questions in Spanish to be answered in Spanish by best pupils, in English by others.

MEMORY WORK. Songs, proverbs, classroom expressions.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Occasional dictation and other written work called for in class text. English words from Spanish that are changed in spelling; that are not changed in spelling.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Geography of Spain. Map drawing: boundaries, neighboring countries, water boundaries, size and population, climate. Read at least one book in English that develops understanding of the Spanish culture.

SECOND-YEAR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL SPANISH: SECOND HALF

PRONUNCIATION. Continue as in preceding half year.

GRAMMAR. Review grammar of preceding half year. Continue study of forms as found in beginners' text.

READING. Read 85 pages or more in reading texts of proper difficulty. Continue question-and-answer work.

MEMORY WORK. Songs, proverbs, additional classroom expressions.

NOTEBOOK WORK. All written work called for in beginners' book. Study of Spanish-English cognates.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Map drawing. Put in island possessions and chief cities. Importance of Madrid. Study of several great

heroes of Spanish history. One book dealing with the life of Spain or of Spanish South America should be read in English.

THIRD-YEAR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL OR FIRST-YEAR SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL FRENCH: FIRST HALF

The same amount of technical work is given as in the preceding two-year course, but the work in word study and in study of the foreign culture is less. Pupils enter the second year of senior-high-school work from this course as well as from the preceding two-year course.

Pronunciation. See Chapter Five for procedures.

Grammar. Learn definite, indefinite, and partitive forms of articles and their uses in assertative and negative sentences, and before adjectives and expressions of quantity. Learn gender of nouns by learning the proper form of the article with each noun learned. General rule for forming plural and special rule for nouns ending in *s*, *x*, *al*, *au*, *ou*, *eu*. Determine number and gender of noun before deciding on proper adjective ending. Rule for formation of feminine and plural adjectives, with exceptions. Irregular adjectives: *beau*, *blanc*, *bon*, *villain*, *moyen*, *long*, *tout*, *nouveau*, etc. Position of adjectives: usual position; common adjectives that precede noun. Possessive adjectives and their agreement with their substantives. Commonest adverbs, prepositions, and forms of regular and irregular verbs ending in *er*, *ir*, *re*. Personal pronouns as subject, direct and indirect object, after an imperative, etc.; *il* with *être* followed by an adjective or adverbial phrase; *ce* with *être* followed by a noun; reflexive pronouns.

Reading. Read a minimum of 50 to 75 pages in a beginners' book. Questions in French after opening weeks, answers in English.

Memory Work. Songs to be sung in class, proverbs, classroom expressions. The necessary learning of declensions and conjugations.

Notebook Work. Learn the vocabulary necessary for class work conducted in French. Dictation. All written work called for in beginners' book.

Study of the Civilization. Map drawing. Outline map of France. Put in chief rivers and mountains by name, also neighboring countries and bodies of water forming boundaries. Show the area and population of France. Designate the most important mountain ranges, rivers, and the four largest cities, and give reason for their importance. Indicate important historical movements or events, and the lives of important historical characters. Read at least one book in English dealing with the life of France.

THIRD-YEAR JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL OR FIRST-YEAR SENIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL FRENCH: SECOND HALF

PRONUNCIATION. Continue with corrective exercises.

GRAMMAR. Drill on partitives after negative expressions of quantity and before adjective preceding noun. Irregular forms of plural; nouns having two genders. Position of personal pronouns in sentences; the disjunctive form after prepositions and in interrogative sentences; use of demonstratives. Agreement of pronouns with their antecedents; their use demonstratively and interrogatively in sentences. Formation of plural; regular and irregular comparison of adjectives. Review verb tenses; learn additional common regular and irregular verbs. Past participle used as an adjective in agreement with subject. Use of impersonal verbs. Position of adverbs in simple and compound sentences. Regular and irregular comparison of adverbs; use of double negatives.

READING. Read 125 pages in beginners' book and extra text. Question-and-answer method partly at blackboard and other methods of quizzing on reading. See Chapter Eight.

MEMORY WORK. In part, the learning of the necessary paradigms and conjugations. Also songs and proverbs. However, most time will be spent in using the necessary forms in mutation and fill-in exercises.

NOTEBOOK WORK. All expressions used in class, dictation exercises; all written exercises called for in beginners' book, word studies in cognates, synonyms, and antonyms.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Map work. Put ten largest cities on map. Indicate population density of various sections. Put in chief railroads and canals. Designate with appropriate symbols the chief industrial products of the various industrial sections and the chief agricultural products of the various sections of the country. Read at least one book in English on Paris or on the industrial or home life of France.

SECOND-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL GERMAN: FIRST HALF

GRAMMAR. Review grammar in the first-year German book. Learn formulas for principal parts of seven classes of irregular verbs so as to be able to tell principal parts by inspection of the stem. Work on modals, passive voice, and subjunctive for recognition only. Study separable and inseparable prefixes of verbs and their position in sentences; also word order of personal pronouns and adverbs in sentences.

READING. Read about 150 pages of well-graded texts. Questioning in German, answering in English, except for most-gifted students. For other exercises on reading texts, see Chapters Eight and Nine.

MEMORY WORK. Necessary grammatical forms, songs, and proverbs.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Written work called for in the grammar. The same beginners' book and grammar serve through this year. Study of cognates and word groups.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Map work continued. Study early periods of German history; illustrate by bringing in portraits of their greatest men. Read at least one book in English on German history.

SECOND-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL GERMAN: SECOND HALF

GRAMMAR. The passive and the substitutes for it; double infinitive construction and subjunctive, the latter for recognition only.

READING. About 150 pages of well-graded texts. Questions in German, answers in English, for all but most-gifted students.

MEMORY WORK. Grammatical forms, songs, word lists, and idioms.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Questions and answers on reading texts. Study collections of word groups. Synopses of texts.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Map work. Put in the boundaries of the nine greatest states and indicate the location of the others. Continue study of periods of German history and illustrate study of great men and events with various kinds of visual material. Read at least one book in English on German political, social, or intellectual life.

THIRD-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL SPANISH: FIRST HALF

GRAMMAR. Grammar review. No formal grammar but continued grammatical exercise through oral and written questions and answers on texts read. If written work and oral work are always corrected properly, errors will be progressively eliminated.

READING. Minimum of 250 pages of well-graded texts. Questions and answers, oral and written as heretofore. For other standard procedures, see Chapters Eight and Nine.

MEMORY WORK. Vocabulary, idiom lists, songs.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Questions and answers on reading texts. Collections of word groups. Synopses of texts.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Map work. Chief industries and industrial sections to be indicated by various colorings and appropriate symbols. Chief products of the various agricultural and horticultural regions to be indicated by appropriate symbols. Study of Spanish greatness and decline in later centuries. Represent great men, women, and events with illustrations and realia. Read one book in English on the history or life of Spain or of Spanish South America.

THIRD-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL SPANISH: SECOND HALF

GRAMMAR. Grammar review. No formal grammar but continued attention to it in practice, as in preceding half year.

READING. Minimum of 250 pages. Question-and-answer exercises, etc.

MEMORY WORK. Songs, word and idiom lists.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Questions and answers on reading texts. Collections of word groups.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Map drawing. Indicate chief cities, harbor cities, railroads, chief provinces, and the Spanish islands. Continue study of Spanish history to modern times and illustrate study of men, women, and events with visual and realia material. Read at least one book in English on Spanish history or life.

FOURTH-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL ITALIAN: FIRST HALF

GRAMMAR. No formal grammar but continued attention to grammatical forms and principles in active use, as in preceding term.

READING. Read a minimum of 250 pages of well-graded texts. Questioning and other standard procedures as heretofore. Use of an all-Italian dictionary, if possible.

MEMORY WORK. Word and idiom lists; word groups.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Questions and answers on texts. Any assigned synopses of texts.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Review of map work. Italy's colonial possessions. Italy in the United States. Indicate on map of the United States the places in this country where Italians have settled in large numbers. Study early Italian history and illustrate with visual material and realia. Read at least one book in English on Italy's past.

FOURTH-YEAR HIGH-SCHOOL ITALIAN: SECOND HALF

GRAMMAR. No formal grammar but continued attention to grammatical forms and principles in active use, as in preceding term.

READING. Read a minimum of 250 pages. Procedures as outlined for preceding term. Use an all-Italian dictionary, if possible.

MEMORY WORK. Word and idiom lists; word groups.

NOTEBOOK WORK. Same as in preceding term.

STUDY OF THE CIVILIZATION. Exhibit of illustrations of modern Italian inventions. Exhibit of great persons and events of modern times through various kinds of visual and realia aids. Read at least one book in Italian on modern Italy.

Publications of the Study[1]

Vol. 1. *New York Experiments with New-Type Modern-Language Tests.* Ben D. Wood. 1927. $1.50
Vol. 2. *Laboratory Study of the Reading of Modern Foreign Languages.* Guy T. Buswell. 1927. 75¢
Vol. 4. *Enrollment in the Foreign Languages in Secondary Schools and Colleges of the United States.* C. A. Wheeler, and others. 1928. $2.00
Vol. 5. *Achievement Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages.* V. A. C. Henmon. 1929. $1.00
Vol. 9. *German Frequency Word Book.* Bayard Q. Morgan. 1928. 60¢
Vol. 10. *German Idiom List.* Edward F. Franklyn. 1929. 60¢
Vol. 11. *Spanish Idiom List.* Hayward Keniston. 1929. 60¢
Vol. 12. *Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States.* Algernon Coleman. 1929. $1.50
Vol. 13. *Training of Teachers of the Modern Foreign Languages.* Charles M. Purin. 1929. 75¢
Vol. 14. *Prognosis Tests in the Modern Foreign Languages.* V. A. C. Henmon and others. 1929. 75¢
Vol. 15. *French Word Book.* George E. Van der Beke. 1929. $1.10
Vol. 16. *French Idiom List.* Frederic D. Cheydleur. 1929. 75¢
Vol. 17. *Studies in Modern Language Teaching.* 1928–1932. $1.75
Vol. 18. *Summary of Reports on the Modern Foreign Languages.* Robert H. Fife. 1931. $1.00
Vol. 3. *Graded Spanish Word Book.* Milton A. Buchanan. 1929. $1.25
Vols. 6 and 7. *Modern Language Instruction in Canada:* Parts I and II. M. A. Buchanan and E. D. MacPhee.
Vol. 8. *An Annotated Bibliography of Modern Language Methodology.* M. A. Buchanan and E. D. MacPhee. $1.00

Publications of the Committee of Modern Languages of the American Council on Education[2]

Experiments and Studies in Modern Language Teaching. A. Coleman. 1934. $2.75
Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching. A. Coleman. 1927–1932. $3.00
Analytical Bibliography of Modern Language Teaching. A. Coleman. 1932–1937. $3.00
Spanish Syntax List. Hayward Keniston. 1937. $1.75
Syntax of Sixteenth Century Spanish Prose. 1937.

[1] All published by the Macmillan Company except Vols. 3, 6, 7, and 8, which are published by the University of Toronto Press.

[2] The first three titles listed are published by the University of Chicago Press; the last two by Henry Holt & Co., Inc.

Supplementary Readings by Chapters

CHAPTER 2. OBJECTIVES

Aiken, Nanette B. *A Study of the Newer Objectives in the Teaching of Elementary Spanish, and Certain Procedures for Realizing Them.* Master's thesis, University of Southern California, Los Angeles; 1937.

Canty, Laura M. *Twenty-five Cases of Outstanding Successes and Failures in French Classes.* Master's thesis, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N. J.; 1935.

Cox, P. W. L. "Is Universal Success Achievable in Modern Foreign Languages?" *The Clearing House*, Vol. 13 (Dec., 1938), pp. 220–222.
Advises fixing attention upon uses actually made of foreign languages by non-specialists.

Englemann, Suzanne. "A Contribution to the Question of Teaching Modern Languages," *G.Q.*, Vol. 8 (Jan., 1935), pp. 12–24.
Details of two systems of teaching a modern language in a German *Oberlyceum*.

Farnier, A. J. "The Evolution of Foreign Language Teaching in French Secondary Schools," *F.R.*, Vol. 8 (May, 1935), pp. 445–454.
Gives the principles and practices today.

Giltner, Gwendolyn. "Motivation, Socialization, Correlation, Integration," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Nov., 1938), pp. 126–132.
Gives the methods the author uses in her Spanish classes to serve these four demands.

Huebner, Theodore. "Are Foreign Languages Taught Better in Europe?" *H.P.*, Vol. 19 (Feb., 1937), pp. 48–58.
Thinks European instruction is inferior to that in the United States.

Johnston, E. G. "The New Curriculum Challenges the Modern Foreign Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (March, 1937), pp. 387–395.
Six of the trends in the curriculum of the Progressive Education Association are discussed; modifications already made and criticisms of present teaching are presented. The need for giving even the poorer student a workable concept of national backgrounds is recognized.

Lilling, E. W. "Modern Foreign Languages: A Civilizing Force," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Apr., 1938), pp. 28–31.
"Developing progressively the emotional attitudes of the students" is an important part of developing respect for a foreign people.

McMurry, R. E.; Muller, Max; and Alexander, Thomas. *Modern Foreign Languages in France and Germany.* Columbia University, New York; 1930.

Morgan, B. Q. "A Program for the High-School Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Mar., 1938), pp. 420–421.
Our aim should be cultural education.

NEUENSCHWANDER, A. R. "Objectives of a Second-Year German Course," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Dec., 1937), pp. 209–213.

Objectives listed are ability to read, knowledge of German literature, slight oral ability.

POWELL, M. S. "Problems of Modern-Foreign-Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Jan., 1937), pp. 254–259.

Discussion of objectives by a university man.

RUBEL, ROSE. *The Influence of the Study of French on the Interpretation of English Vocabulary.* Master's thesis, College of the City of New York; 1935.

Concludes that the study of French in junior high school improves English vocabulary.

SCHWEGLER, R. A. "A Psychologist Looks at Modern-Foreign-Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Oct., 1937), pp. 41–45.

Valuable psychological viewpoints and terminology.

TARR, F. C. "Our Modern-Foreign-Language Trinity: Language, Literature, Civilization," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1938), pp. 265–273.

Our curriculum needs sound criticism and humanistic perspectives. Language and literature mirror the civilization, an understanding of which has meaning in terms of our own land and times. Multiplicity of objectives is desirable.

THARP, J. B. "Foreign Languages and the Social Studies," *Educational Record*, Vol. 19 (Oct., 1938), pp. 449–462.

Offerings in modern language are being differentiated today for social reasons rather than for developing language aptitudes. Social purpose is becoming more evident in our textbooks also.

THARP, J. B. "Modern Foreign Languages and the Social Studies," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Sept., 1938), pp. 69–71. The same article may be found in *Ed. Method*, Vol. 17 (April, 1938), pp. 360–361.

Synopsis of panel discussion at a meeting of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the N. E. A. at Atlantic City.

VON GRÜNINGEN, J. P. "The Problem of Outlining Objectives," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 28 (May, 1936), pp. 216–223.

Gives a thoughtful analysis of objectives.

WANN, H. V. "The Fundamental Objectives of Foreign-Language Study," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Dec., 1937), pp. 165–170.

Disagreement between educational critics and modern-language teachers over objectives and methods of attaining them.

CHAPTER 3. GENERAL METHOD

BROWN, MURIEL A. *An Objective Study of Literature on French Teaching.* Master's thesis, University of Southern California, Los Angeles; 1937.

FORKEY, L. O. "Some Experiments in the Teaching of French at the Tuscaloosa, Alabama, Senior High School," *F.R.*, Vol. 12 (Dec., 1938), pp. 108–113.

A student-teacher reports on first-year procedures.

GULLETTE, C. C., and KEATING, L. C. *Learning a Modern Language: Suggestions for Students.* F. S. Crofts & Co., New York; 1938.

Gives helpful hints on a variety of subjects.

JOHNSON, WILLIE M. *A Tentative Course for the First Semester in Spanish.* Master's thesis, University of Southern California, Los Angeles; 1913.

MACCLINTOCK, L. "Cultural Patterns and the Language Teacher," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1938), pp. 191–193.

Study of foreign language is an intellectual and moral challenge.

CHAPTER 4. ASSIGNMENTS, REVIEWS, TESTS

ALPERN, H. "A Modern Test in Modern Literature," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Jan., 1933), pp. 268–274.

This examination given at end of one semester is reproduced in full.

CHEYDLEUR, F. D. "An Experiment in Adult Learning of French at the Madison, Wisconsin, Vocational School," *J. Ed. Res.*, Vol. 26 (Dec., 1932), pp. 259–275.

Reports results of an eclectic method course given to 61 adults. Adults in independent courses can surpass university and high-school students. The average adult point grade is 1.2; that of university students, approximately 1.

FICKEN, C. E. *Intercorrelations of Part-Scores in Foreign Language Tests.* Ph.D. thesis, University of Madison, Wisconsin; 1937.

MILLMAN, M. J. *Diagnostic Study of Achievement in First-Year French Courses in Junior and Senior High Schools of Providence, R. I., 1934–1936.* Master's thesis, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island; 1937.

NELSON, AGNES. *A Comparative Study of Achievement in French in the Junior and Senior High School.* Master's thesis, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.; 1934.

Found achievement in two years of junior-high-school language study superior to one year of senior-high-school study.

NEUSCHATZ, MARIE. *A Comparison of the Amount of French Cultural Information Possessed by French and Non-French Students.* Master's thesis, College of City of New York; 1933.

The test used in making this study is reproduced in the report. It was administered in four high schools in New York City to 379 seniors taking French and 243 not studying French. The mean score for the first-named group was 68.53; for the second group, 60.17.

PARKHURST, DOROTHY. *An Evaluation for High School Use of the Information Content about France in 24 French Novels and Dramas of the 19th and 20th Centuries.* Unpublished Doctor's thesis, New York University; 1934.

Done on the model of the Gilman Study. Lists the 24 books, giving the number of references to such information in each.

SAMMARTINO, P. "A Language Achievement Scale," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Mar., 1938), pp. 429–432.

Explains the new scale for rating students in French at New College.

STOUSE, MILDRED R. "*Jardin d'enfants*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1938), pp. 194–198.
Gives lesson plans for French in kindergarten.

CHAPTER 5. PRONUNCIATION AND ORAL WORK

COLEMAN, A. *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States.* The Macmillan Company, New York; 1929.
Pages 246 ff. give a report of Josephine Allin's class visitation in which she found the quality and value of oral work excellent in 76 classes, good in 58. In 90 per cent of the "excellent" group the foreign language "was the language of the classroom."

EBLEN, VIOLA. "Spoken French: Ideal or Reality?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (May, 1938), pp. 616–620.
Suggestions for teaching idiomatic pronunciation.

ENGEL, E. F. "An Open Door," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1936), pp. 190–191.
German broadcasting.

—— "Educational Programs on Radio Listed in *Institute Bulletin*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1936), pp. 531–532.
Programs of Radio Institute of Audible Arts, New York, recommended.

—— "The Broadcasting of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Mar., 1936), pp. 356–358.
Gives list of stations broadcasting modern-language instruction.

—— "The Broadcasting of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States: Second Survey," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (May, 1938), pp. 626–628.
Table of radio stations broadcasting foreign languages.

EVANS, MARJORIE K. *The Measurement of French Pronunciation.* Master's thesis, Ohio State University, Columbus; 1937.

HEFFNER, R. M. S. "The Reading Objective and the Reading Method," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 30 (Nov., 1938), pp. 367–375.
Oral exercises on reading lesson useful in teaching reading.

JOHNSON, LAURA B. "Language Learning as an Activity," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 19 (Dec., 1934), pp. 202–214.
Oral work may include drill, songs, pantomime, crossword puzzles.

KAULFERS, W. V. "*Précis* of French Pronunciation for Beginners," *F.R.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1938), pp. 235–242.
Offers charts and a method of learning French pronunciation.

—— and ARATA, I. M. "Aural Comprehension Exercises for Beginners in French," *F.R.*, Vol. 11 (Mar., 1938), pp. 378–384.
Exercises are given for teaching pronunciation.

KIMBALL, L. W. "Practical Courses in French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Apr., 1938), pp. 500–501.
Discussion of successful four-year program at Rutgers College.

LUMLEY, F. H. "Broadcasting Foreign Languages," *Educational Research Monograph, No. 79.* Ohio State University, Columbus; 1934.
Deals with techniques, aims, and methods.

LUMLEY, F. H. "Does Radio Broadcasting Help Pupils Pronounce a Foreign Language?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (May, 1934), pp. 383–388.

MINTON, A. "*Un tintamarre si diabolique*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1938), pp. 199–204.

Gives lists of cries of vendors, suggestions how to use these in class.

POMERANCE, CYBÈLE. "The Possibilities of Teaching French with Motion Pictures," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, Vol. 12 (Nov., 1938), pp. 167–176.

Possibilities of teaching sounds, intonation, inflection. Lists films.

RUST, DOROTHY A. "I Can Read It but Not Talk It," *Journal of Education*, Vol. 121 (Nov., 1938), pp. 273–274.

Student's desire for self-expression must be appealed to. Extra credit for achievement in self-expression. Suggestions for dialogues.

SPARKMAN, C. F. "Sources and Developments of Oral Self-Expression in a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (Apr., 1934), pp. 468–480.

Immersing the learners in the atmosphere of the foreign language and imitation are the means found best.

TAUB, L. L. "The German Radio Hour," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1938), pp. 37–41.

German clubs of twelve New York City schools gave thirteen weekly broadcasts.

TURNER, C. E. "The Use of a Foreign Language in Teaching a Foreign Literature," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (March, 1938), pp. 444–446.

The foreign tongue should be used in the foreign literature class if teacher and class are able.

WEST, M. P. *On Learning to Speak a Foreign Language*. Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., New York; 1933.

The aural-oral principle is advised. Uses a specifically prepared vocabulary of 996 items. The pupil is drilled or allowed to express himself in this vocabulary so that he may not need to grope for words but may concentrate on usage of words and sentence construction.

—— "Speaking-Vocabulary in a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Apr., 1930), pp. 509–521.

Indicates the difficulty of delimiting a speaking vocabulary, refers to Basic English as an attempt in English to solve the problem.

—— "The Present Position of Vocabulary Selection for Foreign-Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1937), pp. 433–437.

Summarizes the ideas of advocates of word frequency vocabulary; of the structuralists who accept range of occurrence as important but reject words which owe their frequency to the commonness of the thing named rather than to structural importance; of the idea-selectionists who try to establish what ideas need to be expressed and to cover this set of ideas with the smallest possible number of words. There is confusion at present in our teaching because we learn a vocabulary for reading and assume that the same one will do for speaking.

CHAPTER 6. TEACHING GRAMMAR

ARNOLD, H. H. "A Survey of Tense Frequencies in French, Spanish, and Italian," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 17 (June, 1932), pp. 87–89.

In a count of 22,000 running words in each language, the author found higher frequency of the subjunctive in Spanish and Italian than in French, and infrequent use of our preterite perfect and frequent use of the infinitive in Italian.

——"Double Function of the Conjunction *que* and Allied Forms," *H.*, Vol. 13 (March, 1930), pp. 117–122.

BISSELL, C. H. "Some Things That Ought to Be in French Grammars," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (March, 1938), pp. 447–453.

Lists necessary grammatical data not found in French grammars.

BOESCHE, A "On *Haben* and *Sein* as Auxiliaries of the Compound Past Tense," *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (Nov., 1928), pp. 170–180.

BOUVARD, G. B. *The Minimum Essentials of Grammar for the First Four Terms of New York City Secondary Schools to Fulfill the Reading Aim of a French Course.* Ph.D. thesis, New York University; 1934.

Sets down the necessary items as determined by tests.

BRENNARD, J. D., and COLEMAN, A. "A Syntax Count of the French Verb: A Preliminary Report," in ALGERNON COLEMAN, *Experiments and Studies in Modern-Language Teaching*, pp. 280–346. University of Chicago; 1934.

BRITTON, R. D. "The *Passé Simple*, the *Passé Composé*, and the *Imparfait*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Apr., 1937), pp. 516–518.

Suggests simplification in teaching tenses.

BUDA, ROBERT. "A Comparative Tense Count in French," *H.P.*, Vol. 15 (Nov., 1933), pp. 31–35.

Gives frequencies in four texts.

BUFFUM, M. E. "The Past Positive Pronoun in Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 10 (May, 1927), pp. 181–188.

CARBALLOSA, L. "The Future Tense," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Feb., 1930), pp. 397–398.

COESTER, A. "Again the Spanish Superlative," *H.*, Vol. 10 (May, 1927), pp. 176–180.

COLBURN, G. B. "Complementary Infinitive and Pronoun Object," *H.*, Vol. 11 (Nov., 1928), pp. 424–429.

COLE, R. D. "Free Composition *vs.* Translation into Foreign Language in Developing Ability to Write a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1927), pp. 200–206.

DALE, G. I. "The Imperfect Subjunctive," *H.*, Vol. 8 (March, 1925), pp. 127–129.

DAVIS, KATHARINE J. *Achievement in French Grammar.* Master's thesis, University of Chicago; 1932.

Results of teaching grammar were found to be unsatisfactory.

ESCHER, E. "French Verb Tables," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 6 (Feb., March, 1922), pp. 265–270, 302–321.

Fess, G. M. "The Neuter in Modern French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (May, 1938), pp. 621–623.

Lists a number of pronoun forms in non-personal expressions.

Fitzgerald, T. A. "The Future of Present Probability," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 14 (Nov., 1929), pp. 131–132.

Fling, W. D. "Liaison and Linking," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Feb., 1938), pp. 359–363.

Difference between the obligatory and the optional liaison.

Garland, M. R. *The English Grammar Necessary for the Study of a Foreign Language.* Master's thesis, College of the City of New York; 1934.

Collected the views of 290 teachers of English and of foreign languages. The two groups agreed essentially. Fifty-five items voted by both groups are listed as most necessary.

Goggio, C. "Aims and Methods of Teaching Elementary Spanish," *H.*, Vol. 6 (Nov., 1923), pp. 273–285.

Goodloe, Jane F. "An Outline of German Grammar on the Mnemonic Scheme of Three, Five, Eight," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Nov., 1938), pp. 109–117.

Offers a simple outline of German grammar for beginners.

Goodman, J. S. "The Past Tenses in French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (March, 1923), pp. 351–354.

Graham, M. W. "Imperfect Subjunctive in Spanish America," *H.*, Vol. 9 (Feb., 1926), pp. 46–49.

Hardre, R. "*L'interrogation directe*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Jan., 1928), pp. 299–304.

Hess, J. "*Sondern vs. Aber; Sino vs. Pero*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 6 (Feb., 1922), pp. 271–272.

Heuser, F. J. "Capitalization in German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 1 (Jan., 1928), pp. 22–41.

Holbrook, R. T. "*Parle-on et parle-t-on?*" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 8 (Nov., 1923), pp. 89–91.

Kaulfers, W. V. "*Ser* and *Estar* in Beginning Classes," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 21 (May, 1936), pp. 87–91.

Keniston, H. *Spanish Syntax List.* Henry Holt & Co., New York; 1937.

Final report to the Study. Definitive list. Important.

Keniston, H. "The Syntax Count of Contemporary Spanish," in Algernon Coleman, *Experiments and Studies in Modern-Language Teaching*, pp. 347–357. University of Chicago Press; 1934.

—— "The Study of Grammar in Second-Year Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 5 (Dec., 1920), pp. 129–133.

Kueny, F. J. "*C'est* and *il est* before a Superlative," *M.L.J.* Vol. 8 (May, 1924), pp. 481–489.

—— "*Naquit-il ou est-il né*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Apr., 1935), pp. 437–438.

—— "*Qu'est qui et qui est-ce qui*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Nov., 1924), pp. 89–94.

—— "*Encore le 'qui' interrogative*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Nov., 1924), pp. 115–117.

KUENY, F. J. "*Comme on a d'appetit*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (Dec., 1925), pp. 139–150.

—— "The Meaning of the French Adjective *Fruste*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (Jan., 1926), pp. 209–220.

LEFFERT, E. "Progressive Teaching of French," *F.R.*, Vol. 3 (Oct., 1929), pp. 23–24.

LEONARD, J. A. "The Organization of the Spanish Verb," *H.*, Vol. 8 (Feb., 1925), pp. 29–36.

MORLEY, S. G. "Modern Uses of *Ser* and *Estar*," *Publications of the Modern Language Association*, Vol. 40, No. 3, 1925, pp. 450–489.

—— and GREGORY, A. L. "Modern *aun* and *aún*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 10 (May, 1926), pp. 323–336.

PARKER, E. F. "Ignored Values of the Preterite Tense," *H.*, Vol. 11 (May, 1928), pp. 218–220.

PIERCE, F. W. The German Adjective and the Use of the Umlaut in its Comparison," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 3 (Feb., 1919), pp. 213–217.

PROKOSCH, E. "*Sprachgeschichte und Sprachunterricht*," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1928), pp. 129–134; (Nov., 1928), pp. 203–208; (Dec., 1928), pp. 239–245; Vol. 21 (Jan., 1929), pp. 1–5; (Feb., 1929), pp. 27–31; (March, 1929), pp. 59–63; (April, 1929), pp. 88–96; (May, 1929), pp. 9–12; Vol. 22, pp. 123–127.

A valuable philological discussion for the teacher.

ROSE, E. "German Composition in Advanced Classes," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1938), pp. 163–167.

Exposition of aims and effective methods.

SHONFELD, SADIE. *Non-Essentials in the Teaching of the German Subjunctive with Reference to the Reading Objective*. Master's thesis, College of the City of New York; 1933.

Less stress is put on the subjunctive in College Entrance Examination Board examinations and Regents' examinations, and it is found less often in texts, than teachers commonly suppose.

SPAULDING, R. K. "*Conocer que*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (May, 1925), pp. 373–374.

—— "*Pueda hacerlo vs. lo puedo hacer*, and similar cases," *H.*, Vol. 10 (Nov., 1927), pp. 243–248.

TARR, F. C. "Some Characteristic Uses of the Noun Clause in Modern Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 9 (Nov., 1924), pp. 73–82.

WARSHAW, J. "What Ails Beginners?" *H.*, Vol. 5 (Dec., 1927), pp. 311–324.

WILLIAMS, C. S. "Visualizing the Verb Forms in Spanish," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 5 (March, 1921), pp. 317–319.

—— "Visualizing Noun Clauses with *que*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 6 (Feb., 1922), pp. 273–275.

WOLFSON, SARAH. "Writing Compositions in French," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Jan., 1938), pp. 63–67.

Lists devices used in teaching composition.

WRIGHT, LEAVITT O. "Things to Omit from an Elementary Spanish Grammar," *H.*, Vol. 16 (Feb., 1933), pp. 59–65.
Useful.

ZIPF, G. K. "On the Problem of Grammatical Rules and the Study of General Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 4 (Jan., 1938), pp. 243–249.
Psychological reasons for grammar rules should be found. Illustrates proceeding in discovering the laws of syntax and inflection.

CHAPTER 7. WORD AND IDIOM STUDY

APPELT, E. P. "*Wortschatz und Kulturkunde*," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 30 (May, 1938), pp. 264–267.
Kultur can be taught through a study of derivation of German words as author shows by many examples.

COCHRAN, E. E. "Mastering German Idioms," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1938), pp. 274–276.
Gives excellent exercises for mastering idioms composed of many kinds of word combinations.

DE LANEY, EDYTH F. *Analysis of the Vocabulary Burden of French Reading Materials.* Master's thesis, Ohio State University, Columbus; 1937.

FLETCHER, W. H. "The Recognition Difficulty of Common Words in Spanish," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 18 (Apr., 1933), pp. 126–128.
Value of study of derivatives. Should stress certain difficult words.

KAULFERS, W. V., and WARNCKE, F. J. "Adventures in Practical Philology for High-School Freshmen," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 23 (Sept., 1938), pp. 145–148.
Offers a lesson in English-German cognates for the first week in a German course.

LORENZ, C. M. "Foreign-Language Words and Phrases in American Periodicals," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Nov., 1937), pages 92–103.
Lists French, German, Spanish, and Italian words and phrases used in eight widely read periodicals in 1935. Shows value of knowledge of these languages.

MORGAN, B. Q., and OBERDECK, LYDIA. "Active and Passive Vocabulary," in *Studies in Modern-Language Teaching.* The Macmillan Company, New York; 1930.
The passive vocabulary grows faster than the active one.

—— "German-English Dictionaries for Students," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 26 (Dec., 1934), pp. 260–263.
Evaluations.

RADMERSKY, G. W. "An Introductory Study of German Idiomatic Speech," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Nov., 1938), pp. 137–146.
Studies the idiom-bearing element in idioms.

ROSENTHAL, D. C. "The English Factor in the Study of French," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Feb., 1938), pp. 348–352.

We cannot attain definiteness and accuracy in teaching foreign language partly because of our students' ignorance of English.

ROSSELOT, LA VELLE. *Analysis of the Vocabulary of Two Procedures for Teaching French Speech.* Master's thesis, Ohio State University, Columbus; 1934.

The vocabulary covered in two phonographic systems and one pictorial one were studied and fewer than one third of the words used were found to be common to the three systems.

SHANE, M. L. "Measuring the Extent of French Vocabulary of High-School Students," *F.R.*, Vol. 7 (Dec., 1933), pp. 108–124.

The author found that the students observed had 765 words in their active vocabulary at the end of the first year of study and 2715 words in their passive vocabulary. By the end of the second year 1185 active words were mastered, 2985 passive ones. By the end of the third year, 2160 active words, 3945 passive ones, had been mastered.

TATE, H. L. "Two Experiments in Reading-Vocabulary Building," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1938), pp. 214–218.

Understanding of root words valuable. Listing words derived from the same roots without knowing the roots was shown to have no value.

WENGRAF, W. L. *The Applicability of German Songs in Teaching German in Junior and Senior High Schools.* Master's thesis, College of the City of New York, 1933.

Found by a study of 100 German songs that one third of the 2103 different words contained were not listed by Purin or Morgan, and half the idioms were not listed by Hauch. The cultural subject matter was approximately that called for in the New York City syllabus.

CHAPTER 8. DEVELOPMENT OF READING ABILITY

CLAVEL, M. "*L'explication française*," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (Nov., 1922), pp. 83–86.

COENEN, F. E. "An Excellent Reading Method," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (May, 1938), pp. 139–141.

Describes results got with interlinear readers in German after covering two thirds of the grammar.

CRU, A. L. *La lecture expliquée.* Silver, Burdett & Co., New York; 1929.

HUEBNER, T; PADVE, M.; WEINSTOCK, C. J. "Recent Experiments in Teaching Foreign Languages in the Elementary Schools," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (April, 1939), pp. 24–31.

It is recommended that the first two years of the present course in New York City should be covered in grades 5A to 8B, the second two years in the high school in grades 9A to 12B.

KAULFERS, W. V. "The Foreign Languages in the Stanford Language Arts Investigation," *H.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1938), pp. 13–18.

Report of progress in the construction of new curricula.

MORGAN, B. Q. "New Hope for Learners of German," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 30 (Dec., 1938), pp. 454–456.

Gives outline of reading method based on the Minimum Standard German Vocabulary.

PERRY, C. D. "A Defense of Modern Foreign Languages — With Reservations," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (March, 1938), pp. 422–428.

SAMMARTINO, P. "Factors in the Improvement of Silent Reading," *It.*, Vol. 15 (March, 1938), pp. 13–15.

Silent reading practice should be a part of foreign-language work from the start.

SHIELD, GEORGE H. W. "An Approach to the Reading Adaptation," *W.B.*, No. 102 (Oct., 1932), pp. 3–5.

SINGLETON, C. S. "A Note on the Improvement of Reading," *It.*, Vol. 15 (June, 1938), pp. 66–69.

Pronunciation drill very necessary at the very beginning.

SPARKMAN, C. F. "An Analysis of the Fundamental Problem of Learning to Read a Foreign Language," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 13 (Oct., 1928), pp. 1–14.

—— "Bases for Training for Direct Interpretation in Foreign Language Reading," *H.*, Vol. 12 (May, 1929), pp. 287–302.

—— "Oral Work in Recognition-Reading Training," *M.L.F.* Vol. 18 (April, 1933), pp. 8–13.

—— "Teaching Students to Read a Foreign Language *vs.* Letting Them Learn How," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Dec., 1930), pp. 163–175.

SPENDIAROFF, E. "Is Learning to Read an Easy Task?" *M.L.J.*, Vol. 16 (March, 1932), pp. 490–494.

STROEBE, LILLIAN. "How to Prepare a Reading Lesson," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 21 (Feb., 1929), pp. 43–47.

VIGNERON, R. "*Explication des Textes* and Its Adaptation to the Teaching of Modern Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1927), pp. 19–35.

WEYMOUTH, B. E. *A Teaching Unit in Song for First-Year High-School French.* Master's thesis, Boston University; 1936.

WOODBRIDGE, B. M. "A Practical Reading Method," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (May, 1938), pp. 586–588.

Concentration on reading with independence of student as to materials to be read. Discusses the Reed College plan.

YOUNG, C. E. "The Reading Approach," *F.R.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1938), pp. 10–24.

The successful work described comprised exercise in recognition and comprehension rather than reproduction, but much attention was paid to ear-training, pronunciation, and grammar. Translation was replaced by other exercises.

CHAPTER 9. MAKING READING SERVE BROAD EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES

APPELT, E. P. "*Literatur zur deutschen Kulturkunde*," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (May, 1938), pp. 126–132.

Gives lists of German books to orient thinking about German culture.

APPELT, E. P. "*Die Privatlektüre in fremdsprachlichen Unterricht*," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 22 (March, 1930), pp. 76–80.

Books for outside reading and a method of testing on this.

CARLSON, H. G. "*Namenkunde und Kulturkunde*," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1938), pp. 29–35.

Shows how to combine study of the language and of the culture of a people. The order of study may be: land, language, literature.

COLE, ANNA L. "Guide to Fiction Founded on French History," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Oct., 1938), pp. 6–8.

A list of books to stimulate student interest in French history.

GODDARD, E. R., and SEIBERT, L. C. "Testing Out-of-Class Reading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (May, 1931), pp. 591–598.

True-false tests proved the best kind to use.

HANDSCHIN, C. H. "Teaching German Civilization," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (March, 1938), pp. 61–70.

Discusses kind of course, objectives, materials, and methods.

KAULFERS, W. V. "Practical Techniques for Testing Comprehension in Extensive Reading," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 17 (Feb., 1933), pp. 321–327.

Citation exercises and identification of new words, characters, and literary qualities are recommended.

KERCHEVILLE, F. M. "Outside Reading Problems, A Practical Suggestion," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (March, 1931), pp. 410–413.

Correlate student's reading with his outside interests.

LINDSAY, DOROTHY N. "Newspaper and the Bible as Supplementary Reading Material," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Oct., 1938), pp. 13–15.

Outside newspaper reading increased reading ability and integrated with history study. Penny copies of books of the Bible furnished sight-reading material.

LOGAN, MARTHA E. "Socializing the Teaching of Spanish — a Functional Approach," *H.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1938), pp. 293–300.

A museum of Spanish realia at Stephen's College, Spanish songs and illustrations, and informal study and motion pictures serve to arouse interest and give pleasure in learning.

MILLER, MINNIE MAY. "A Test on French Life and Culture," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (Dec., 1935), pp. 158–162.

The test is for sale at the Bureau of Educational Measurements, State Teachers College, Emporia, Kansas.

MULLINS, M.; STONE, M. B; and REED, G. B. "A Consideration of Some Criteria for Textbook Selection," *F.R.*, Vol. 7 (May, 1934), pp. 471–480.

These authors find that the difficulty of a literary selection is not measurable by counting vocabulary, idioms, and sentence length.

PEEBLES, W. C. "A Test on German Life and Culture," *G.Q.*, Vol. 10 (Jan., 1937), pp. 22–26.

Contains 100 questions — direct-recall, matched answers, and best answers.

ROSENBERG, M. *Mexican and Mayan Archaeology, A New Source of Supplementary Content for the Enrichment of the Teaching of Spanish.* Master's thesis, State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, N. J.; 1937.

RUSSELL, H. J. *Trends and Techniques in the Construction of Reading Materials for Modern Foreign Languages.* Doctor's thesis, Ohio State University, Columbus; 1938.

It is necessary to simplify reading materials for elementary foreign-language students. Vocabulary and idiom content must be graded according to established techniques. A freshman college class learns to read sooner and more accurately when using such graded materials.

SCHIRMER, MARIELE. "The Place of Civilization in Modern-Foreign-Language Teaching," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (April, 1938), pp. 489–499.

Shows how teaching civilization may be correlated with teaching language and gives a pertinent list of books.

SCHNEIDER, F. "Scientific German *vs.* Survey Courses of German Literature in English Translation," *M.L.F.*, Vol. 23 (Feb., 1938), pp. 25–28.

Recommends reading material in English on the foreign culture.

SHEEHAN, SISTER MARY FRANCES. *The Cultural Content of the High School French Curriculum: A Comparative Study of Representative French Texts and State Courses of Study.* Master's thesis, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.; 1937.

SOKOL, A. E. "The Questionnaire as a Teaching Aid," *M.f.U.*, Vol. 30 (Jan., 1938), pp. 16–19.

Gives questionnaires to cover survey course as an aid to learning.

THARP, J. B. "A Test in French Civilization," *F.R.*, Vol. 8 (March, 1935), pp. 283–287.

TROTTER, R. C. "Extensive Reading Library," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1938), pp. 277–284.

A book list containing outside reading material for first- and second-year French at low prices.

CHAPTER 10. REALIA AND OTHER VISUAL MATERIALS

BERNARD, E. G. "Visual Aids for Teachers of Italian," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1938), pp. 291–293.

Gives data on available slides and films.

FRANZ, ELIZABETH. "Famous French Painters Illustrate French Literature," *F.R.*, Vol. 11 (March, 1938), pp. 439–440.

Illustrations of French Painters for French works of literature stimulate study of literature as well as French art.

HELD, HILDA K. "Bringing France and Germany to American Schools," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Feb., 1938), pp. 339–342.

Value of realia in stimulating interest in French and German.

MILONE, AMELIA. "Realia as Applied in the Italian Classroom," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Feb., 1938), pp. 353–358.

Devices for classroom use of realia. Useful bibliography of realia.

CHAPTER 11. INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

ALPERN, H., Chairman. "Modern Foreign Languages in Educating Superior Students," in *Educating Superior Students*. American Book Company, New York; 1935.

BILLETT, R. O. "What the High Schools Are Doing for the Individual," *School Life*, Vol. 16 (Jan., 1931), pp. 85–87.

COFFMAN, BERTHA R. "Motivation of a Course in Scientific German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1938), pp. 1–3.

Describes coöperation of the science department and teachers in medical school with language teachers in giving a course in scientific German.

CRAWFORD, C. C., and LEITZELL, E. M. *Learning a New Language*. University of Southern California; 1930.

FEDER, D. D., and COCHRAN, GRACE. "A Study of Individualized Instruction at the College Level," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 21 (Oct., 1936), pp. 23–25.

Superior results were achieved by this method.

KEFAUVER, G. N. "The Validity of Bases for Forming Ability Groups," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 31 (Nov., 1929), pp. 99–114.

LORBEER, W. W. *Individualizing the Teaching of Spanish in the High School*. Master's thesis, University of Southern California, Los Angeles; 1937.

MILLER, H. L., and JOHNSON, DOROTHY. "Directing Study for Mastery," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 30 (Dec., 1922), pp. 777–786.

MUELLER, A. D. *Teaching in Secondary Schools*. D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York; 1928.

NOCK, F. J. "The Teaching of Scientific German," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (March, 1938), pp. 106–110.

The aim of the scientific German course should be utilitarian and involve accuracy and careful translation.

STAUBACH, CHARLES N. *How to Study Languages*. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1937.

WARSHAW, J. "A Flexible Foreign-Language Course," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 18 (April, 1934), pp. 463–467.

Reports on individual course for advanced undergraduates as tried at the University of Missouri.

CHAPTER 12. STUDENT ACTIVITIES

ALTMAN, CLARA. "Changing Modern Languages to Meet Modern Trends," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Dec., 1938), pp. 205–208.

Extracurricular program for training for citizenship, developing an international mind, and contributing to present-day ideals.

ANTHONY, AMELIA E. *The Status, Objectives, and Values of French Club Activities in the Secondary Schools of New York State*. Doctor's thesis, New York University; 1937.

BRADY, A. M. *Christmastide: Skits, Playlets, Songs, Music, Dances, Poems*. Banks Upshaw Company, Dallas, Texas; 1937.

FELDSTEIN, L. J. "Producing the Foreign-Language Magazine," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Sept., 1938), pp. 58–64.

Value to students of New York City high schools of getting out a foreign-language publication.

GREENAWAY, M. C. "Tomorrow to Fresh Woods. Taking the French Club to Canada," *F.R.*,Vol. 11 (May, 1938), pp. 493–497.

GREENLEAF, J. H. "Anniversaries: A Calendar for the French Club," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (April, 1928), pp. 532–544.

GULLETTE, CAMERON C. "Suggestions for the Spanish Club Calendar," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 20 (May, 1936), pp. 459–467.

HARRISON, M. W. "Spanish Clubs," *H.*, Vol. 13 (Oct., 1930), pp. 345–351.

Many suggestions for programs and for general conduct of the club.

HENRY, RUTH. *Piececitas españolas fáciles.* Allyn & Bacon, Boston; 1924.

Contains a list of parliamentary terms in Spanish.

HESS, JOHN. "A Guide for German Clubs," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 11 (Jan., 1927), pp. 213–236.

May be had also by addressing Professor Hess, Athens, Ohio, and enclosing 30 cents. The best work on the German Club. Contains model constitution, games, etc.

HIEBLE, J. "Language Learning through Extracurricular Activities," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (May, 1938), pp. 584–585.

Suggests numerous activities to go along with regular class work.

HOLZMANN, A. W. "A Decade of Declamation," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Nov., 1938), pp. 133–136.

College declamation contest in German has been held annually for ten years at Rutgers University, and an interscholastic contest for secondary school pupils for six years.

JAMESON, R. P. *Le cercle français.* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1932.

The best work on the French club. Written in French, contains model constitution and all needed helps.

JANOVSKY, SEYMOUR. "A New Type of Activity Program for Modern-Language Students," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Nov., 1938), pp. 51–53.

Fourth-term French, German, and Spanish classes get out a bi-weekly language paper and are greatly stimulated thereby.

JONES, W. K. *Calendar of Latin-American Anniversaries.* Tardy Publishing Company, Inc., Dallas, Texas.

—— *Calendar of Spanish Anniversaries.* Tardy Publishing Company, Inc., Dallas, Texas.

These calendars contain a wealth of dates.

JONES, W. K. "It's in the Cards," *H.*, Vol. 21 (Oct., 1938), pp. 187–190.

Material for Christmas programs in Spanish classes.

LEIVE, MAX. "The Foreign-Language Community Sing," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Mar., 1938), pp. 61–62.

Singing German songs at the assembly where the audience is also furnished with mimeographed copies of the songs.

MAYS, RUTH. *A Guide for Teachers of Modern Foreign Languages.* The Southwest Press, Dallas, Texas; 1930.
Besides discussion of general methods, has suggestions for Spanish clubs.

MILLER, EVELYN. *Extracurricular Activities for the Spanish Department.* San Jose High School Print Shop, San Jose, California.
Valuable suggestions for clubs and club exhibits.

MILLER, MINNIE M. "Activities for Spanish Clubs," *H.*, Vol. 21 (Dec., 1938), pp. 285–292.
Suggestions for activities that have proved successful.

MINTON, ARTHUR. "German Assembly Programs: A Panorama," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Apr., 1938), pp. 58–62.
Several examples of well-chosen programs are given.

MORGAN, B. Q. "*Deutsche Gedenktage:* A Calendar for German Clubs," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 12 (March, 1928), pp. 431–439.

—— and HINZ, STELLA M. "*Deutsche Gedenktage:* A Calendar for the German Language Club," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Jan., 1938), pp. 250–264.
Historic events and the date of birth and death of great German men and women are listed so they may be celebrated on the proper dates.

NUNN, MARSHALL ELBERT. "The Importance of Collateral Reading for Spanish Classes," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (Feb., 1938), pp. 369–371.
Collateral reading if well-planned is valuable and need not interfere with regular language work.

"Plays for the Italian Club," *It.*, Vol. 5 (June, 1928), pp. 53–56.
An account of successful plays given in recent years.

ROACH, ELOISE. *Spanish Club Manual.* Tardy Publishing Company, Inc., Dallas, Texas; 1935.
Contains model constitution and all essential phrases for conducting business. Suggestions for programs.

SAMMARTINO, P. "A New Experiment in Modern-Language Clubs," *The Clearing House*, Vol. 5 (March, 1931), pp. 416–418.
Tells of the work of two Italian clubs.

SANDEROFF, B. "The Spanish Bulletin Board," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (Feb., 1939), pp. 51–53.
Unit exhibits are made and kept on the board for two weeks each. Questions on the exhibits are included in the weekly tests.

SCHIRMER, MARIELE. "The Significance of the Modern-Language Club," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 7 (Nov., 1922), pp. 93–98.

SCHUELER, H. "Folk Dances in the German Club," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (Nov., 1938), pp. 206–212.
Value of folk dances to the club.

STEWART, CAROLINE. *Rules of Order for the French Club.* Oxford University Press, New York; 1925.

WEYMOUTH, BURDETTE EARLTON. "Delight, and More, in Singing," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Oct., 1938), pp. 9–12.
Value of singing to modern-language learning.

CHAPTER 13. ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS

ADLER, A. C. "Integrating the Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages with Mental Hygiene and Social Science," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (March, 1938), pp. 437–443.

ALBERTY, H. B., and THAYER, V. I. *Supervision in the Secondary School.* D. C. Heath & Co., Boston; 1931.

BOYD, J. A. "Reducing Failures in High School," *Educ.*, Vol. 51 (March, 1931), pp. 425–429.

BROCK, R. C. *An Experimental Evaluation of Various Bases for Prognosis in Spanish.* Master's thesis, University of Southern California, Los Angeles; 1933.

"Mental age" is the best prognosis measure for Spanish. Pupils with IQ below 100 and poor spellers in English should be excluded.

BROWNELL, W. A. *A Study of Supervised Study.* Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois, Urbana; 1925.

BURTON, W. H. *The Nature and Direction of Learning.* D. Appleton-Century Company, Inc., New York; 1929.

Bibliographies at ends of chapters; 5 tables; 8 charts.

BUTTERWECK, J. S. *The Problem of Teaching High-School Pupils How to Study* (*Contributions to Education*, No. 237). Teachers College, Columbia University, New York; 1926.

COLE, T. R. "Bringing the University and Public Schools Together," *American School Board Journal*, Vol. 83 (Sept., 1931), p. 37.

COLLINS, E. *Supervisory Guidance of Teachers in Secondary Schools.* The Macmillan Company, New York; 1934.

CRAWFORD, C. C. "How-to-Study Course in the High School," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 38 (Jan., 1930), pp. 16–27.

—— *The Technique of Study.* Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston; 1930.

DE BOER, J. J. "Integration: A Return to First Principles," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 43 (Feb. 22, 1936), pp. 246–253.

EDMONSON, J. B. "The Principal's Program for Training Pupils in Habits of Study," *National Education Association Proceedings*, Vol. 67, pp. 585–591. National Education Association, Washington; 1929.

ENGLEBERT, A. F. "A Modern-Language Program for the Modern Curriculum," *Sch. & Soc.*, Vol. 47 (Jan. 15, 1938), pp. 83–85.

High-school pupils lack motivation for foreign-language study. The department of modern language might better be named department of foreign civilization, and should give in English more courses in the foreign literature to integrate with social studies and music.

EWERS, RUTH. "Shall We Give Spanish to Our Seventh Grades?" *California Journal of Secondary Education*, Vol. 13, No. 1 (1938), pp. 43–45.

Three years' experience has justified including Spanish for the seventh grade. The order of work is conversation, writing.

GATCHEL, D. F. "Results of a How-to-Study Course Given in High School," *Sch. Rev.*, Vol. 39 (Feb., 1931), pp. 123–129.

GUENTHER, H. W.; MINSKY, H.; and PRINCE, J. L. "Check-up of Supervised Study," *Journal of Education*, Vol. 112 (July 28, 1930), pp. 86–87.

HAGBOLDT, PETER. *How to Study Modern Languages in College.* University of Chicago Press; 1925.

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Training in getting the meaning of sentence and paragraph, and the kind of questions best suited to achieve this.

HEADLEY, L. A. *How to Study in College.* Henry Holt & Co., Inc., New York; 1926.

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Orientation courses in language arts in secondary schools.

KEENER, R. H. "An Experiment in First-Year French," *H.P.*, Vol. 17 (Sept., 1935), pp. 57–58.

Found that first-term French grades provide a better prognosis measure than elementary-school grades.

KELLY, E. M. "Shortcomings and Merits of Assigning Lessons," *H.P.*, Vol. 12 (Oct., 1930), pp. 25–28.

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KURZ, HARRY. "Reaching the Individual," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 15 (Nov., 1930), pp. 85–93.

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Historical study of language in the eighth grade and its results.

MILLER, H. L., and HARGREAVES, R. T. *The Self-Directed School.* Charles Scribner's Sons, New York; 1925.

Chapter 2 treats of "educating up to capacity."

MONROE, W. S., and MOHLMAN, D. K. "Training in the Technique of Study," *Research Bulletin*, No. 20; 1924. University of Illinois Bureau of Education.

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NUTT, H. W. *Current Problems in Supervision of Instruction.* The Johnson Publishing Company, Richmond; 1928.

O'NEILL, ANGELA. *The Effect of a Preliminary Course in Junior High School on Achievement in French in Senior High School.* Master's thesis, Brown University, Providence, Rhode Island; 1933.

Found scores of high-school students who had had a year of French in junior high school, and those who had had none, almost equal.

PHILLIPS, H. S., Chairman. "Reports of a Committee on Junior High Schools," *Denver, Colorado, Elementary School Journal*, Vol. 23 (Sept., 1922), pp. 13–24.

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SCHWARTZ, SYLVIA T. *Prediction of Success in Beginning French on the Basis of IQ and Marks in School Subjects.* Master's thesis, George Washington University, Washington, D. C.; 1937.

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—— "Three Coefficients of Correlation That Concern Modern Foreign Languages," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 22 (May, 1938), pp. 591–594.

Prognosis tests will not solve our modern-language problems.

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A review section has proved effective at the University of Nebraska for students who have not studied French for from one to six years.

WAPLES, D. *Procedures in High-School Teaching.* The Macmillan Company, New York; 1924.

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YALLER, R. "A Survey of Causes of Student Failure in Language Study," *H.P.*, Vol. 20 (June, 1938), pp. 12–23.

Causes of failure are prominently too much drill on grammar and memory work. Students are more interested in learning to read and speak, and to know the foreign culture.

CHAPTER 14. TEACHER TRAINING

CHURCHMAN, P. H. "Our Hierarchy of Values," *M.L.J.*, Vol. 23 (Nov., 1938), pp. 85–108.

The training of teachers of Romance languages in the graduate school.

MANKIEWICZ, F. "Training of Teachers in Service," *G.Q.*, Vol. 11 (May, 1938), pp. 142–152.

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ROBSON, E. H. A. *How Shall We Train the Teacher of Modern Languages?* Heffner & Sons, Cambridge, England; 1929.

Training in England, Scotland, and Wales includes rigid college training, a year abroad, and courses in education and practice teaching.

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FRENCH

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